The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 18, 1891.

The Week.

THE long and apologetic statement which the Comptroller of the Currency has prepared for the public as well as for the Investigating Committee, concerning his relations with the Keystone Bank, does not by any means go to the bottom of the mystery surrounding the scandal, but it does furnish a considerable amount of information which may be of service in bringing out the whole truth later. It furnishes specific dates for certain important developments in the bank's career, and it puts the responsibility for keeping the bank open for seventy-four days after its insolvent condition was known almost entirely upon the National Bank Examiner, Mr. Drew. Concerning the delay in appointing a receiver, Mr. Lacey makes a fairly satisfactory statement, saying the bank was really in Drew's hands, that the delay was not unusual, and that the situation of affairs was not changed by the delay. The astonishing feature of the statement is that both Drew and Lacey should have believed that Marsh, after having confessed that he had been forging and cheating for a series of years, could, by showing repentance and willingness to aid, be converted into an honest man and safe President of the very bank he had helped to plunder.

John Bardsley, the dishonest City Treasurer of Philadelphia, who sunk $930,000 of State funds and $600,000 of city funds in the Keystone Bank, and $200,000 of city funds in the Spring Garden Bank, has pleaded guilty to three indictments, containing seventeen separate counts, and his counsel announces that he is preparing a complete statement for him, which will be read in court when Bardsley comes before it for sentence on June 23. Whether this statement will prove to be a full confession, remains to be seen. If it does, it is safe to say it will be the most interesting document published in Philadelphia for many a day. Every day's developments about the Keystone Bank management add to the already overwhelming proof that there was extraordinary rottenness there for months before it was closed, and that a large number of people were thoroughly cognizant of the fact. The Assistant Cashier, Charles Lawrence, testified last week that as early as December 2 of last year he announced in the directors' room of the bank, in the presence of five of the directors, that the indebtedness of the bank amounted to a million dollars. He said, also, that he and the fugitive President Marsh used every effort to deceive the Bank Examiner, who was at the bank nearly every day; that Lucas, the dead President, who stole nearly a million of the bank's funds, began his thieving ten years ago, and asked Lawrence at the time to make alterations in the books to conceal it; that the amount increased steadily till it reached $300,000, and he had to conceal the loss of that sum in his ledger; that Lucas simply drew checks for what he wanted, and, as he had no money to his personal account, they were paid with the bank's money; that in all $320,000 or $330,000 of the bank's money was paid to him in this way, and either its loss was concealed on the books or the books were mutilated to prevent the Bank Examiner from discovering the loss. Lucas is the man with whom good, pious Mr. Wanamaker entered into the "blind pool" in Reading stock, and who furnished Mr. Wanamaker with 2,515 fraudulent shares of Keystone stock upon which to raise money for their joint speculation.

Is there nothing disgraceful or dishonorable in the record of Wanamaker's intimate association with two swindlers? One of them is dead and can tell no tales, like Quay's wicked partner in the Treasury thefts, and the other is a fugitive, and Wanamaker's brother is on his bail bond. Do Mr. Wanamaker's defenders really congratulate themselves that he has not broken into a bank with a crowbar? When the newspapers of Philadelphia gloss over such transactions as his, and pronounce glib confession of them complete vindication, they become a party to them, and are as culpable as he is. Mark well the fact that the newspapers which are doing this are the same ones that were advocating Delamater's election last year, and mark well, also, that no whisper of the rottenness of the Keystone Bank was allowed to get out till after Delamater's defeat. When the plan to put him in charge of the State Government had failed, and not before, Wanamaker began to get his money out of the Keystone Bank, Marsh made up his mind to confess and run away, and the Bank Examiner began to find defects in the bank's accounts which compelled him to make report of them at Washington. The press which is now endorsing Wanamaker's performances was doing its utmost to put the State Treasury behind the rotten bank, and conceal the thefts from its funds which Bardsley has been forced, through the failure of Delamater's election, to confess.

The Pennsylvania Supreme Court has decided that the Governor has the right to fill the vacancy in the City Treasurership of Philadelphia caused by Bardsley's resignation, and consequently that the office shall be occupied by the man of Mr. Pattison's choice, instead of a man elected by the distrusted City Councils. Everybody knows that the Governor will insist upon the most rigid investigation and the most thorough exposure of all the facts, while everybody suspects that the local ring would do its best to suppress the truth and prevent any further revelations. The incident furnishes fresh evidence of the great advantage to the State of Mr. Pattison's election. If the Republican Machine had made Delamater Governor, and there had been any hint of the Philadelphia bank rottenness, the whole power of the State Government would have been exerted to hush up the scandal and protect the rascals.

President Harrison has given further evidence of his unusual skill in making judicial appointments by his action in constituting the new Court of Private Land Claims. This court consists of five members, and all of the five appear to be men of excellent standing in their respective States. Better still, Mr. Harrison has recognized the proprieties by dividing the places between the two parties and the two sections, two of the five offices being given to Democrats and two of the judges being taken from the South. It is a great pleasure to be able to bestow such unqualified praise upon the President's judicial appointments. The mystery is that a man who shows such excellent judgment in this direction should be capable at the same time of appointing Tanners and Raums.

The remarkably fair Reapportionment Bill which has been so long and bitterly contested before the Massachusetts Legislature was finally passed to be enacted last week. The minority of the Republicans, who resisted the greatest pressure to change a non-partisan measure into the worst sort of a gerrymander, deserve the heartiest praise. Massachusetts is the State which gave the country the name that is now universally applied to the unfair division of a commonwealth into districts, when Elbridge Gerry pushed through his famous scheme in 1812; and it is really only doing penance for an old offence against justice when it now passes a measure that challenges the admiration of the nation for its reasonableness. The only discreditable feature of the incident is the fact that Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, "the Scholar in Politics," used all his influence to defeat this uncommon exhibition of fair play. Only a few months ago, however, Mr. Lodge was urging that Congress should assume the power of dividing all the States of the Union into Congressional districts. The chief argument which he urged in favor of the innovation was that the Legislatures were almost certain to show partisanship in the matter and substitute reckless gerrymandering for fair districting, and that Congress was the only body which could be trusted to be sternly unpartisan in the premises. Yet after vainly urging that Congress should reapportion Massachusetts on the ground that the Massachusetts lawmakers could not be trusted to do the right thing, he returned to his State only to appear at the Capitol as a lobbyist against a measure which every-

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body conceded to be strictly non-partisan, and in favor of substituting a scheme which the Republican Chairman of the Committee having the matter in charge pronounced "the most outrageous gerrymander ever proposed"!

Mr. Roosevelt has been doing excellent service in bringing the assailants of the Custom-house civil-service examinations to book, and making the Republican Association of the Twenty-third District, which has been very noisy in this field of late, prove its charges of unfairness and unpracticalness. We need hardly say that, in spite of every accommodation on Mr. Roosevelt's part, all attempts to prove the charges have failed. There never has been anything tangible behind these attacks except a general, but deeply rooted, feeling that there must be something wrong about a system which admits Democrats to office under a Republican administration. How long the party will put up with this judicial-mindedness on the part of Mr. Roosevelt remains to be seen. There is already considerable hostility to him, which is likely to grow as we get nearer to the Presidential election. Until now he has been able to repel the enemy by occasional hearty denunciation of the Mugwumps, which always soothes discontented regulars; but the effect of this will probably wear out after a while. Still, he can always make the denunciation a little stronger, which we advise him to do if it will save his influence in the party, for the influence is excellent and the Mugwumps do not mind. We wish his friend up in Massachusetts, Mr. Cabot Lodge, would follow his example, by walking in the ways of righteousness and cursing Mugwumps at the same time. Far from this, Lodge indulges in the most unholy tricks, and abuses the Mugwumps besides, which is wicked excess.

Reports from Kansas and Nebraska agree that the Alliance movement is beginning to lose strength. No less than twenty-five sub-alliances in Kansas have already repudiated the third-party action of the Cincinnati Convention. In one case, and that too in a county which has been considered a stronghold of the "People's party," a resolution was adopted unanimously declaring that, as the South was not represented in the late Cincinnati Convention, and as the third party threatens to disrupt the Republican party to the benefit of the Democratic party, "we abandon the third party to return to our past affiliations." Ex-Congressman Dorsey of Nebraska reports that in his State also the farmers are losing their interest in the Alliance. It is significant that the falling away from the Alliance accompanies a prospect of excellent crops this year. It shows that the movement of last year was largely an outbreak of discontent over the hard times caused by poor crops. It was noted last fall that in many places where the season was not a bad one, the men who made the most noise at Alliance meetings were farmers who neglected their farms, while neighbors who did not waste their time sitting about grocery stores and bewailing the outrages committed by "the Money Power" got along all right.

"Labor" has been making another of its extraordinary demands. A chief ground of offence against the Indians has always been that they were a lazy set, who would never do a stroke of work if they could help it. Of late years successful attempts have been made to educate the younger members of the race into the idea that they ought to support themselves. One of the schools maintained by the Government is situated at Genoa, Neb., and some of the Indians attending it are working in the sugar-beet fields of that State. Thereupon a meeting of "workingmen" is called which passes resolutions protesting against such industry on the part of the Indians, and petitioning the Government to prohibit it. Moreover, the politician who is Superintendent of the School is so much impressed by the importance of this demonstration by "Labor," that he recommends the Indian Commissioner to comply with the demand. The Commissioner has administered a proper rebuke to the Superintendent, but the incident must set the red men wondering what sort of a thing this civilization, of which they have heard so much, really is.

The recently formed Tax-Reform Association has set before itself an excellent work in the matter of educating the public on the subject of State taxation. This is absolutely necessary before we can have anything like real reform in our methods of raising State and municipal revenues. We notice that the chief plank in its platform is that "real estate should bear the principal burden of taxation." This is what real estate now does in this city, and we presume there would not be much difficulty in making it bear the whole municipal burden in all our large cities, because in all of them real-estate owners have something in the nature of a monopoly. But when it comes to farming lands, the problem changes. Owners of land used for agricultural purposes have no monopoly. They are exposed to keen competition in the sale of their products in nearly every State in the Union, owing to the present extraordinary and increasing cheapness of transportation. They are, therefore, not able to diffuse the taxes that fall on them in the first instance, as urban landowners are. The city real-estate owner can certainly, in most situations, insert his taxes in his rental, or in his prices of goods, but the farmer cannot so easily insert them in his cattle or grain. This is the main difficulty in the way of the Tax-Reformers, and the one to which they should address themselves most sedulously.

The severe comments of the Court of Appeals on the performances of the members of the bar who make frivolous applications for writs of habeas corpus in order to delay the execution of criminals, or, in other words, to hinder the administration of justice, will be read with much comfort by an afflicted public. The point in these remarks, however, which contains most comfort, is the suggestion that the Supreme Court should discipline the offenders. Let us hope that the Supreme Court may be induced to act on it. The theory on which the public puts up with the bar is, that the lawyers are officers of the courts and equally concerned with the judges in the proper and orderly administration of justice. To have the bar's privileges converted, as they have been in these murder cases, into weapons of opposition to the law, into instruments for making the law contemptible and securing impunity for crime, is more than any civilized community can bear very long. So we trust the Supreme Court will use any powers it possesses to fill the lives of these habeas-corpus tricksters with some kind of terror.

The Merzbacher defalcation in the New York Life Insurance Company has turned public attention to the financial management and expenses of life-insurance companies. The officers of that company seem to have involved themselves in a series of unpleasant contradictions regarding the Merzbacher matter, both as regards their responsibility to the public therefor and as to the manner in which the loss is to be made good. It is stated that the defalcation, amounting to about $370,000, can be easily made up by Merzbacher in a few years out of his commissions. This implies very large annual payments to this agent, and it is a fair question to ask whether all agents of the company are not paid proportionately large commissions. Stories have from time to time reached the public ear of large salaries to officers both high and low, of repeated gifts or bonuses to favored individuals, and in general of liberal, not to say extravagant, expenditures of the policy-holders' money in all directions. To this we may now add, it seems, enormous commissions for securing business. It is not clear where in the accounts of the New York Life, as presented to the State Superintendent, this defalcation was carried, or whether the loss was allowed for at all. Is it possible that the system of accounts demanded by the State from our life-insurance companies is really inadequate, and that the investigations are either too formal or are not made public in enough detail? For we must remember not only that honest management is necessary, but also that it is important to correct unbusinesslike methods if any exist, to the end that the policy-holders may obtain their insurance at the lowest price consistent with safety. If we assume that insurance companies are quasi-public bodies, and therefore properly subject to State inspection, it is not too much to expect that the business management as well as the safe keeping of the money held in trust should receive the attention of the State and of the public.

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The Pilot Chart of the Federal Hydrographic Office for June, giving the marine record for May, has an exceptional interest for transatlantic voyagers at this period of the year, when the number of outgoing passengers to Europe and the flow of icebergs on the ocean are usually both at their height. Last year at about this time the amount of ice at or near the Grand Bank surpassed, if we are not mistaken, all previous hydrographic records. It reached eastward to long. 35° W. and southward to latitude 40° N., covering roughly an ocean area of several hundred thousand square miles. The bergs last year were not only many in number, but of uncommon size, and during April and May there were twenty-four collisions with vessels, notably those of the *Normannia* and the *Thingvalla*. So remarkable was the iceberg season of 1890 that the Hydrographic Office printed at the end of the year a set of supplementary charts to show it. This year, by contrast, the ice-flow is trifling. It reaches southward to about lat. 42° N., or two degrees north of last year's limit, while its eastward limit is some 400 miles west of last year's. It is "stringy" in shape, and its area probably less than 100,000 square miles, or a small fraction of what it was a year ago. In this month's report the keeper of the Belle Isle light-house is quoted as saying that "if there is any heavy ice to the southward off the Bank it must have passed this coast a long distance off, as only one iceberg has been seen during the entire winter"; although last year the east coast of Newfoundland, and of Labrador also, was at times almost unapproachable on account of ice.

These remarkable variations in the southward flow of arctic ice give an interest to the expedition to North Greenland on which Lieut. Peary and his party started on Saturday week. It will be remembered that the charting of the west coast of North Greenland, as seen from the elevation of the ice-cap of the western interior, is one of the objects of his novel and venturous journey. Looking off on the waters, he may also be able to determine something as to the southward movement of the bergs of the northern arctic regions and to what extent they come from upper waters hitherto unseen. Gen. Greely has asserted that a very large part of the ice-flow comes from a region above Baffin's Bay, and on this point Lieut. Peary may be able to give us new light, particularly should he be able to reach Greenland's "furthest North." Of the places of origin of the ice as a whole and the speed of its southward flow we now know positively almost nothing, the only clue to the latter being the eight months' trip on an ice floe of the wrecked party from the *Polaris*, who, after drifting from upper Baffin's Bay to Labrador, were rescued in the spring of 1873. The law of the ice flow, if once ascertained, may manifestly have a most important bearing on future arctic exploration in the selection of seasons when relatively little ice will be encountered. The unavoidable ignorance on this point has hitherto baffled many arctic explorers, and, what is much more important, reduced materially the catch of the sealers and whale-fishers.

The Prince of Wales does not seem to be nearly out of his troubles. The New York *Sun*, which seemed last week to be prepared to stand by him, abandoned him on Sunday to his fate, and the censure of the Tory press in England is even more severe than that of the Liberals. This, we suspect, is in part a bit of preparation for the general election, for the middle and working classes, not unnaturally, are always disposed to hold the Conservatives responsible for "scandals in high life," as the chief figures in them are usually members of the party. The middle and working classes, too, are now a very formidable factor in a general election, and a clean sweep of the Tory party from power, as a condoner of princely immorality, would be a very serious thing. But the party is between the devil and the deep sea, for a condemnation of the Prince of Wales is, of course, inevitably more or less of a blow to that now very sickly thing, "the monarchical principle." Any arrangement which compels people to support in luxury, at great expense, for fifty years, an idle, somewhat vicious, and by no means gifted man, in order to have an heir ready for an office which has only nominal duties, can ill bear discussion or criticism in our day. The times are wonderfully changed since Leigh Hunt was sent to jail for speaking disrespectfully of the Prince of Wales who was afterwards George IV. George IV., however, escaped one source of embarrassment which for his grandnephew is very serious. He introduced very common people into "society," but he did it because he liked them. The present Prince of Wales labors under the somewhat ludicrous imputation of undertaking it for cash, and of being importuned for the return of the money on the ground of failure to perform the contract. There is nothing like this in the history of monarchy, but it is what might have been foreseen when a commercial democracy was suddenly brought into contact with a mediæval social hierarchy.

The annual report of Sir Evelyn Baring, just presented to Parliament, though chiefly upon the finances of Egypt, contains an interesting account of the progress made during the eight years of English control in that country. In 1883 insolvency was imminent; now a financial equilibrium has been secured, the surplus of revenue over expenses for 1890 having been £600,000, while the reserve fund amounts to £1,745,000. While few direct taxes have been abolished, owing chiefly to the opposition of the French, the condition of the fellaheen has greatly improved. They are no longer subjected to the slavery of the *corvée*, that system "of forced, unpaid, and unfed labor by which the irrigation works of the country were maintained." The use of the koorbash has been prohibited, and with the lash has passed away "a whole system of brutality and physical intimidation." There has been a distinct diminution of administrative corruption, the enemy of all genuine progress in a country where hitherto bribes were unblushingly exacted by every official, high or low. A reform of the judicial system has been instituted in spite of the determined opposition of many Egyptians of the highest rank, and promises to be far-reaching in its beneficial effects. This is a record of which England may well be proud.

As might have been expected, Chancellor von Caprivi refused on Thursday to present to the Lower House of the Prussian Diet the material upon which he based his extraordinary speech of June 1st. Contrary to the general expectation that the Government would propose to the Federal Council a temporary suspension or reduction of the grain duties, Caprivi, in defiance of monster petitions pointing out the existence of actual agricultural distress, in opposition even to some of the stanchest protectionists and most devoted adherents of Bismarck's agrarian policy, such as Von Kardorff and Von Hammerstein, announced that the Government had decided to uphold the present duties. He denied that the prices of cereals were abnormally high, maintained that Austria, Russia, North America, and India were fully able to meet Germany's increased need of grain, and demonstrated, in the usual approved way, that a reduction would certainly benefit the foreign producer, while it was very doubtful whether the German consumer would profit by it. His argument culminated in the declaration that a 50 per cent. reduction in duties would in any case hardly affect the price or the weight of bread, as it would make rye only two or three pfennigs per kilogramme cheaper—a dictum which will henceforth take rank in economic discussion with Mr. Evarts's little three-cent joke. Naturally enough, Herr von Caprivi now shrinks from the consequences of his own speech, and refuses to divulge the names of the "experts" who furnished him with the data for his arguments. The vehemence with which Herr Rickert, as the spokesman of the Freisinnige party, turned in Thursday's debate against the Chancellor, and the taunt of Herr Richter that the Government withheld its documents because it was ashamed of them, must have convinced Caprivi that the policy of taking the wind out of Bismarck's sails, by temporarily adopting his economic vagaries, is not likely to prove successful. It is more than possible that the dissensions already existing in the Cabinet regarding the agricultural question will become more pronounced as the combined attacks of the National Liberals, Progressists, and Social Democrats reveal the strength of the opposition in the Reichstag to the present duties; and Herr Miquel, the Minister of Finance, in particular, who is opposed to their retention, may be compelled to withdraw in spite of William's *sic volo*,

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THE CHILIAN SITUATION.

THE Chilian Congressional Junta have issued a manifesto describing the political situation in Chili as seen from their point of view. It adds nothing of much importance to the statement made some time ago in the New York *Tribune* by Don Ricardo Trumbull, the Congressional envoy now in this country. Nor, happily, do we need it in order to be able to pass judgment on the conduct of President Balmaceda. His own message to his Congress now sitting, dated April 20, contains as complete an indictment against him as his worst enemy could draw up. He admits that he had a long quarrel with the Chilian Legislature, owing to their distrust of him; that for reasons which seemed good to them they refused to support Cabinets appointed by him, and it must be remembered that Chilian Cabinets are of the French and English type, and have seats in the Chambers, and are dependent for their existence on a Parliamentary majority. He admits that Congress emphasized its disapprobation of him by refusing to make the annual appropriations for the army and navy, and he admits that when this was done, he dispersed the Congress by armed force, closed the higher courts, locked up the judges who decided against him, and proceeded to carry on the Government as a self-appointed dictator, and plunged his country into civil war.

Now this is his own story. It lies before us. We are adding nothing to it and taking nothing from it. It is on this that he must submit himself to the judgment of the civilized world, and especially to the judgment of the friends of parliamentary government. The American public certainly ought to have no difficulty in making up its mind about the rights and wrongs of the matter even on Balmaceda's showing. But it ought not to be dependent upon Balmaceda's showing, or on that of the Congressionalists either. We ought to have at this moment in Chili as our representative a first class man, known and trusted by the country, whose reports would furnish guidance both for the Administration and for public opinion. Considering the efforts we have been making of late years to acquire moral influence over the South American republics, to enter into closer commercial relations with them, and to get them to live under our hegemony as regards Europe, there is something grotesque in the fact that our representative in Chili—the chief of these republics—just now is a barely naturalized "Blaine Irishman," of whom the country had only heard as a British political refugee until he was appointed to the Chilian Mission.

We have already in these columns pointed out the parallel between the existing crisis in Chili and that which would have arisen in this country had Andrew Johnson appealed to force against Congress in 1867, as he very likely would have done had he had a regular army like that of Chili under his command. The Chilian regular army is composed of semi-civilized half-breeds or Indians, very ignorant, very obedient, and very brave—just the material, in fact, for a *coup d'état* at the hands of an unscrupulous executive. It is a great misfortune, as we all recognize here, for a parliamentary country to be obliged to keep on foot a standing army of any kind. It would hardly be tolerated in England were not so much of it needed for foreign service, and had it not been firmly placed in subordination to the civil power by a series of successful struggles with the Crown. As it is, its maintenance is dependent strictly on the annual passage of the Mutiny Act by Parliament. Did that act, for any reason, fail to pass, there would not be a lawful soldier in England the day after Parliament adjourned. We have the same rule here. Our little force would cease to exist if Congress, for any reason, made no appropriation for it.

In all constitutional countries this power of the Legislature over the army is recognized as the most important guarantee of public liberty. Considering the composition of the Chilian army, it is of more importance perhaps in Chili than in any other republic. The army there is a more dangerous weapon in the hands of the Executive than anywhere else. The Chilian Congress was, therefore, exercising a most important right when it refused to a President whom it distrusted the command of a large military or naval force, by failing to make the annual appropriations. For the American public to deny this power to the legislature of a sister republic, would be to express contempt for constitutional government. For the failure of the Chilian Congress to make such appropriations, Balmaceda was not responsible. The duty of a constitutional Executive under such circumstances is to appeal to the courts or to the voters. It is the voters who are charged with the duty of punishing a Congress which fails in its duty. The doctrine that Balamaceda enunciates, that when Congress fails to pass such acts as the Executive thinks it ought to pass, he may use the troops to disperse it, is, of course, to convert republican government into a farce.

We do not think so clear a case for American sympathy and forbearance, we will not say assistance, has arisen on this continent since the establishment of our Government. It is clearer by far than that furnished by the original revolt of the Spanish colonies against the mother country, because no man was then able to foresee what sort of political organization the success of the revolt would produce. Chili has been the best of all the governments which it did produce, the most peaceful, orderly, and free. Considering the kind of population it has had to deal with, its history has been very remarkable. This usurpation of Balmaceda's, however, is making a fearful breach in the traditions of peaceful progress. The one cheering sign in the gloom of the situation is the firm resistance with which he is meeting. Could he have successfully and quietly perpetrated his crime, it would be useless to look for constitutional government in Chili for a century to come. The country would have lived for an indefinite period under a veiled despotism like that of the Third Napoleon.

The *Tribune*, we presume under official inspiration, takes this view of the situation in Chili:

> "The appeal of the Chilian insurgents to the European Powers for recognition as belligerents is grounded upon *de facto* occupation of four provinces, the support of the navy, and the authority of the Congress elected in 1888. In reply the Balmaceda Government can make out a strong case for its own superior position and resources. It has undisputed possession of the capital and the principal port, the army has not swerved in allegiance to it, the majority of the provinces are controlled by it, and a new Congress has been brought into existence. Balmaceda's dictatorship now has legislative warrant in the action of the Congress recently elected. While he was deposed by the majority of the preceding Congress, the proceedings were irregular and did not have the validity of a constitutional impeachment. His action in prolonging the credits for the military budget which the Chambers had declined to vote was unquestionally illegal, but the new Congress has virtually condoned the offence under the plea of necessity, and armed *him with supreme powers for suppressing the* revolt. Strong as may be the sympathies of foreign Powers for the insurgent cause, they will hardly be justified in granting the demand for recognition of belligerent rights."

The answer to this is, that this description of the position of Balmaceda would, barring the fact that the last Congress is in the field against him, have applied exactly to Louis Napoleon's position after 1851. The trouble in all cases, since the dawn of history, in which revolutions have been made by self-constituted dictators, is that "the army did not swerve in its allegiance to them." This is what enabled Cæsar to overturn the Roman Republic, Cromwell to suppress the Long Parliament, Napoleon I. to execute the Dixhuit Brumaire, and his nephew to effect the *coup d'état* of 1851. This, too, is the reason why, as we have said, all friends of parliamentary government dread standing armies in a parliamentary country. They know that if the Executive should take it into his head to commit treason, the army would probably stand by him. The United States is therefore the last country in the world to accept from a man like Balmaceda his undisputed control of such a force as the Chilian army as an excuse for his continuing criminal resistance to the only lawfully elected Legislature of the country, and as a reason for sympathizing with him or countenancing him. It is very like accepting as a sufficient defence from a burglar the fact that he had successfully "squared" the police.

That Balmaceda has now a Congress competent to forgive his treason and arm him with legal authority to carry on the Government of the country in his own way, is equally untenable. Louis Napoleon also had a legislature after his overthrow of the French Republic, but it was not competent to pass an act of indemnity or pardon his crimes. No Congress in Chili can be a legal Congress which is elected solely in districts governed by martial law, administered by a usurper, with the courts closed and the press muzzled. It would be a crying shame and disgrace if any serious American statesman gave a moment's countenance to such a view. Everything done under, for, or by Balmaceda since he dispersed the Legislature is null and void, and can have no justification except such as force can give. What terms the Congressionalists

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should offer him must of course be shaped in part by their own prospects and in part by the condition of the country. But if they can negotiate with him on equal terms, they ought not, in the interest of free government, to offer him anything but permission to go abroad after his baggage has been thoroughly searched. It will be a great misfortune if we use any influence we possess to minimize in South America the guilt of a military *coup d'état*. We owe it to the cause of good republican government all over the world to set our faces like flint against the view that a President who uses the regular army to disperse the Legislature and close the courts, deserves anything but a fair trial, and punishment neither cruel nor unusual.

GENUINE AND BOGUS BALLOT REFORM.

THE Illinois Legislature has passed a ballot-reform bill which is a desirable measure, so far as we can judge from the brief outlines of it which have been published. It will undoubtedly be signed by the Governor and become a law, raising the number of States which have such laws at present to twenty-eight. If the Pennsylvania bill receives Gov. Pattison's approval, the number will be twenty-nine, but we trust that he will refuse to sign it. If "Matt" Quay and Gov. Hill had concocted it together, it could hardly be a more thoroughly partisan measure than it is. We have obtained a copy of it, and find on examination that it is the worst bill of the kind yet passed. If it were to become a law, it would have no parallel in badness except in the New York law as it stands to-day after the amendments of the last Legislature. It requires such a large number of signatures for independent nominations, and fixes the time for filing nominations so far in advance of election—fifty-six days for regular nominations for State officers, and forty-nine for independent—as to be practically prohibitive of all third-party nominations.

Not content with these obstacles to such nominations, the framers of the bill, while making provision that regular party nominations shall be arranged in groups under the party names on the ballot, have inserted a special provision that all other nominations shall be arranged in alphabetical order under the offices for which they are nominated. The object of this unfair arrangement of the ballot is, of course, to make it very easy for the voter to find the regular tickets, and very difficult to find the independent or other third-party nominations. Another defect of the bill is the lack of any limit upon the number of ballots a voter can obtain in case he spoils a ballot in the marking of it. The ordinary limit is three. Under the Pennsylvania bill he can get as many as he desires, provided he returns each spoiled one, and by wilfully spoiling a large number a malicious voter might seriously impede the election. These are merely sample provisions of a thoroughly worthless bill.

This conduct of the Pennsylvania Republican Legislature towards ballot reform, taken in connection with that of the members of both parties in the late New York Legislature and with that of the Republicans of the late California Legislature, reveals the new line of opposition which the politicians have adopted towards the reform. Not daring longer to resist the popular demand for it, they pretend to grant it while insidiously making alterations which completely pervert it. The first point of attack was the vital one of the system, that is, the one placing independent nominations on an equal footing with those of the regular parties. This is the feature of the Australian method which has been most hateful of all to the politicians, for it deprives them of their exclusive control of the ballots and strikes a death-blow at their caucuses and primaries. In New York, California, and Pennsylvania, the attack was made in much the same manner. In California the number of signatures necessary for independent nominations was placed at 5 per cent. of the total vote, and the period for filing nominations fixed at 30 days before election. In New York, where maximum numbers and not percentages are required, the numbers were so increased as to make an aggregate of 10,000 signatures necessary to secure the nomination of a complete State ticket, and at the same time provisions were adopted which render separate independent nominations, or incomplete tickets, practically useless. In Pennsylvania the higher percentage plan was adopted, with the additional obstacles commented upon above.

It will be practically impossible under each of these three measures—treating the Pennsylvania bill as if it were a law like the other two—to get any kind of an independent ticket into the field for a State election. Prohibition and other third parties will have extreme difficulty in doing so in California and Pennsylvania, but in New York they can have a full ticket so long as they are able to poll 1 per cent. of the total vote in the preceding election. There can be no doubt that in both California and Pennsylvania the design of the law is to drive these third-party tickets out of the field. Neither can there be any doubt that in New York the design of the amendments adopted at the last session of the Legislature is to make independent nominations, including municipal-reform tickets, practically impossible. In fact, the Tammany organs are already openly chuckling over precisely this effect of the amendments, and calling attention to the "hole" in which they put reformers of all kinds. Thus ballot reform becomes the ideal system for machine politics. Under the old system the politicians had complete control of the printing and distributing of the ballots, and had to pay for the privilege. They could make the distribution of independent ballots extremely difficult, but could not absolutely prevent it. Now, under the perverted ballot-reform system of New York, California, and Pennsylvania, they can have their own ballots printed and distributed at the public expense, while all independent ballots are practically prohibited by law from getting into the polling places. It is small wonder they chuckle over such a complete perversion of the reform as this is.

Fortunately they have only three out of 29 States in which to do this chuckling. Of the 26 other States—including Illinois, whose bill is certain to be a law—24 have excellent laws, and two, New Jersey, and Connecticut, have poor ones; but neither of these two discriminates against independent nominations, their defects being in other directions. The reform has made enormous progress during the present year, for no less than fifteen legislatures have passed bills since January last, and all these, except in California and Pennsylvania, are thorough-going applications of the Australian system. The politicians have begun their trickery too late to accomplish much, but in every State in which they have succeeded with it, the task of undoing their mischief ought to be begun at once.

THE STATISTICS OF DIVORCE.

THE increasing frequency of divorce in the United States has for some time caused uneasiness among reflecting persons, and has recently been made the subject of investigation by Government. The report upon this subject made two years since by the Commissioner of Labor has just received a critical examination at the hands of Mr. W. F. Willcox of Cornell University, the results of which are published as the first number of a series of studies edited by the political-science faculty of Columbia College. These results, although principally negative in character, are worked out with much care, and are a valuable corrective to the somewhat crude and hasty generalizations of the Commissioner of Labor. In the United States, it appears, there were granted in 1885 some 23,472 divorces, a number greater than is reported from all the rest of Christendom, and probably greater than the number actually granted there. The attempt to determine the rate of increase, however, is beset with difficulties. Many records were destroyed by fire in the court-houses in Chicago and Cincinnati, and the casualties of this kind are nearly one hundred in number. The census of 1870 is admitted to be inaccurate, and that of 1890 is at least questionable. But assuming the average annual increase of population to be 2½ per cent., we find the average increase of divorces to be more than twice as great. Computing the number of married couples at about 19 per cent. of the population, there were, in 1870, 155 divorces to every 100,000 couples, and in 1880 there were 203. In 1870 about 3½ per cent. of the marriages were terminated by divorce, in 1880 about 4.8, and in 1890 probably 6.2.

When we consider the large proportion of negroes in our population, and reflect that prior to their emancipation they had little occasion for divorce proceedings, it might seem probable that the increase in the divorce-rate was due to the changed status of the blacks. Unfortunately the court records do not indicate the color of the parties to

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suits; but Mr. Willcox endeavors to supply the deficiency by classifying the counties of seven fairly typical Southern States according to the proportion of negroes to whites in 1880. In all these States except Georgia, the counties with over 35 per cent. of negroes show an increase greater than the average increase of the country; while the counties having less than 17 per cent. of negroes show an increase less than the average. On the other hand, it seems that the divorce-rate is in most States less in the counties with the largest negro population than in the others. But owing to the notorious underestimate of the colored population in 1870, these calculations are of little value. The opinion is said to prevail in the Southern States that divorce there is almost confined to the negroes, an opinion corroborated by the clerks of the courts; and unless more satisfactory figures can be had than Mr. Willcox produces, this judgment must be accepted.

A further argument in support of this in some respects encouraging conclusion is to be found in the rate of increase of the several States for the decade 1870–1880. The rate for the whole country being thirty-one, it is found that nearly all the States north of Mason and Dixon's line and east of the Mississippi have a less rate than this, while North Carolina, Louisiana, Arkansas, Florida, Texas, Mississippi, Alabama, Colorado, and Dakota have rates of 100 and over, and this increase in the Southern States is, owing to the errors of the census of 1870, probably even larger. But it must not be inferred from this that the divorce-rate in the Southern States, as yet, approaches that of the Northern States. In 1870 this was, as above stated, for the United States, 155 for every 100,000 couples, a rate reached by not a single Southern State and exceeded by twenty-one Northern States. In 1880 the rate for the country had risen to 203, and four Southern States surpassed this—Missouri with 216, Texas with 263, Arkansas with 270, and Florida with 287. But this unsavory preëminence was shared with twenty-two Northern States, including all New England except Massachusetts. Among these States the rate rises from Wisconsin, with 218, to Colorado, with 781. Mr. Willcox endeavors to maintain that divorce is distributed along geographical lines, being most common on the Pacific and least common on the Atlantic. But he is obliged to make so many exceptions that the generalization has little value.

Some encouragement may perhaps be derived from the fact that the duration of marriages before divorce shows a tendency to increase, being on an average nine months greater in 1886 than in 1871. One-half of all the divorces are granted within six or seven years of the marriages. The figures yield no satisfactory answer to the question as to the comparative frequency of divorce among natives and foreigners, nor can we do more than assume from the analogy of Switzerland that divorce is four times as common among Protestants as Catholics. A childless marriage is possibly three or four times as likely to end with divorce as one which results in children. Nearly two-thirds of the divorces are granted upon the application of wives, but nothing is known as to the remarriage of divorced persons, and, so far as we can judge, all the calculations may be seriously affected by the repeated divorces sometimes procured by the same individual.

The opinion has been advanced that most divorces are obtained with a view to new marriages, and Mr. E. J. Phelps goes so far as to declare that if divorced persons were not allowed to marry, "nine-tenths, perhaps ninety-nine-hundredths, of the divorce cases would at once disappear." We are entirely without evidence upon the subject of remarriage in the United States, but M. Bertillon has examined the marriage returns of Switzerland with results which are thought by Mr. Willcox to prove that divorces are not obtained for the purpose supposed, at least to any great extent. The Swiss tables show that of 1,000 widowers marrying within ten years of their bereavement, 323 will marry in less than a year, 260 in a year, and 136 in two years. Of 1,000 divorced men, 300 will marry in less than a year, 255 in a year, and 151 in two years. Of widows the corresponding numbers are 95, 264, 152. Of divorced women, 194, 282, 166.

Mr. Willcox also calls attention to the fact that in Belgium, where the provisions of the Code Napoléon have always allowed divorce by mutual consent as well as separation, the number of both divorces and separations in 1872–81 was 24 to every 100,000 couples, while in France, where no divorce was allowed, the number of separations was 33. Furthermore, as bearing upon the contention that we should have a uniform law of divorce in the United States, Mr. Willcox remarks that the passage of such a law in Switzerland was proved by ten years' experience to have had very little effect upon the divorce-rates of the different cantons, one of them having forty-nine times as much divorce as another.

As to restraints upon divorce caused by the expense of legal proceedings, it is hardly necessary to say that the morals of the people are not likely to be improved by such means. The example of Bavaria shows that legal restraints upon improvident marriages simply multiply illegitimate births, and in general it may be said that legislation can promote morality only when it is in harmony with a substantially unanimous public opinion—which would perhaps be as effective without legislation as with it. The increase of divorces in this country is due partly to the increased resort to legal remedies of all kinds, to the general uneasiness and discontent with the existing constitution of society, to the decay in the belief in immortality and future punishment, to the great development of means of travel and the migratory habits arising therefrom, to the enlarged consciousness of their rights, begetting an increased independence of spirit, among women, and to the real increase of their independence due to new opportunities of self-support. Many a man who would have formerly remained with his wife now deserts her because the railroads enable him to remove himself thousands of miles before his absence will be noticed. Many a woman who would have clung to a worthless husband from dread of starvation did she leave him, now reasons that she can make a better living by freeing herself from a tiresome encumbrance and going to work in a shop or factory.

Mr. Willcox argues forcibly that divorce laws can hardly be expected to control such tendencies as these, but he has little to suggest by way of remedy except education and change of heart. So long as public opinion is indifferent to the prevalence of divorce, it will continue to prevail and to increase.

THE SALON IN THE CHAMPS-ÉLYSÉES.

PARIS, May, 1891.

WHATEVER innovations are made in the art world of England, no matter how many the Grosvenor Galleries and New English Art Clubs formed by rebellious factions, the Royal Academy goes on in its old way, unmoved and indifferent. But it is another thing in Paris. There it was only last year that the Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts, exhibiting in the Champ de Mars, was the result of a schism in the Société des Artistes Français, but already the new exhibition has had its influence on the old Salon. The difference in the management of this year's show in the Palais de l'Industrie is marked. There has been a decrease of almost 800 in the number of pictures, of more than 900 in the sculptures accepted. The large hallway, as you go up stairs from the main entrance, is decorated with tapestries instead of the usual canvases; several of the galleries are closed altogether, in others the paintings hang but two deep, while one room, as at the Palais des Beaux-Arts, has been set aside for a Salon de Repos, where there are many easy chairs and tables covered with books and papers. In fully one-half the balcony absolutely nothing is to be seen.

This change is a decided improvement for the visitor, but it has caused much ill-feeling among the artists who have found themselves rejected from both salons. The immediate consequence is the formation of still a third association, the Société du Palais des Arts Libéraux, which will hold its exhibition in June. The malcontents are contending that when once a man has become a member of the Société des Artistes Français (and a four-years' exhibition in the Salon they think should entitle to membership), he must always be allowed to show at least one picture. Every one who has been in London and seen the atrocities on the line at Burlington House knows what this would lead to. It is just such a claim that is now recognized to be the worst form of corruption in the corrupt Royal Academy.

But many as are the modifications in the management of the show in the Palais de l'Industrie, there is none in the character of the canvases exhibited. All that is most alive, most modern, most original in contemporary art was last year carried off to the Champ de Mars and has remained there. Academic conventionality is the order of the day in the Champs-Élysées. It is true that, coming straight from the London exhibitions, the average attained seems remarkably high. Good drawing and technical knowledge are the rule and not the exception. The amateur does not prevail. But above the general average few rise to sound draughtsmanship and technique, few add that individuality, that vitality which

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alone can give style and distinction to the artist's work. If for English shows pictures are produced to suit the British public, for the old Salon they are painted to appeal to the jury who award the medals, and not to record the painter's impressions or to express his own conception of the beauty of color and form. The influence of the jury, therefore, is that which is most keenly felt; the Salon in the Champs-Élysées has no place for men who have something new to say or a new way in which to say it.

The enormous canvases, never seen anywhere else, are typical examples of Salon aims and methods. This year the most conspicuous are "La Mort de Babylone," by M. Rochegrosse, a "Mort de Sardanapale," by M. Louis Chalon, M. J. P. Laurens's "La Vcûte d'Acier," and M. Henri Martin's "Chacun sa Chimère," of which French papers and critics have had much to say. I know of not a single Englishman who has the artistic knowledge or power to produce one of these compositions. But they are either cold and colorless in their academic correctness, or in them the finer artistic qualities are sacrificed to size and theatrical effect. The most striking pictures in the exhibition, they are not truly decorative or pictorial—despite their lavish display of well-drawn figures—as are the large, stately palaces and groups of Veronese, or even the coarse splendor of Rubens, though Laurens's "Vcûte d'Acier" has been done expressly to decorate the Paris Hôtel de Ville for which so many leading French artists are now working. Really better are paintings like M. Micheléna's "Pen thésilée" and M. Checa's "Attila" (Checa, however, has been seen to far greater advantage), in which the painter has succeeded in suggesting, with tremendous vigor, the action and movement he was striving for; or like M. Gervais's "Les Saintes Maries," with the lagunes of Provence, their intense brilliancy and hot distances rendered so truthfully that they help one to forget that the three naked women in the foreground, whom M. Gervais, for the sake of a title, calls the three saints of the Provençal legend, are but the merest academical studies.

No less academic or official is the interest attached to the work of those painters of established reputation who have remained faithful to the Société des Artistes Français. Seldom has M. Bonnat's draughtmanship been more masterly than in his young, muscular Samson struggling with the lion. Seldom has M. Henner's strange, unwholesome color-scheme been more powerful than in his "Christ Mort" and "Madeleine." But in each it is academical rather than artistic accomplishment which the painter displays; there may be less learning of the schools in one of M. Degas's little naked washerwomen, or M. Besnard's marvellous color arrangements, but there is more art. Mere learning becomes absolutely tedious when it finds expression in the empty pretentiousness of M. Bouguereau or the inevitable lion and desert of M. Gérôme, on the one hand, or in too obvious story-telling on the other, as in "Le Pardon de Kergoat," by M. Jules Breton, with all the detail of figures and costumes aggressively prominent; or the frigidly composed "Fin d'un Roman," by M. Luminais; or Munkácsy's "Lair Favori," its composition and grouping equally aggressive, while it is without that richness and depth of color which so often distinguishes his canvases. Anecdote, usually supposed to be the special property of the British artist, has always held a prominent place in the Salon. But the Frenchman knows how to tell his story in paint better and with more feeling for the medium used in the telling than the Englishman. If he understands his trade at all, he does not degenerate into painted photography, the snare which this year in England seems to have entrapped the Newlyn men. There are painted photographs on the walls of the Palais de l'Industrie, but they have not been sent by men of standing in the artistic world. If one takes a picture like "À l'Asile de Nuit," by M. Geoffroi, with every figure unmistakably a study from life, or a charity school by Mr. Walter Gay, or a very clever milliner's workroom by the Italian Menta, and compares it with Mr. Stanhope Forbes's "Salvation Army" in the Royal Academy (of which I spoke in a recent letter), the entire group arranged as if for the camera, then the difference of treatment is at once appreciated. But though the French artist at the Champs-Élysées is more convincing, he still, as a rule, makes his story of greater importance than its artistic expression; and once the literary, or whatever you may choose to call it, meaning of a picture overshadows its merely sensuous beauty, its value artistically is lessened.

Men like Manet and M. Boldini, M. Roll and Mr. Sargent have so accustomed us to look for a new artistic experiment—the setting forth of a new artistic problem—in every portrait painted, that the old-fashioned conventional portrait now seems dull and tiresome beyond measure. Unfortunately, this old-fashioned convention has not been outgrown by the "Artistes Français," who still paint their sitters as if light and atmosphere were not, and as if to show men and women in natural positions or in their ordinary surroundings were the unpardonable sin in art. M. Benjamin-Constant would be quite at home in Burlington House. M. Munkácsy's drawing-room background is vulgar in its elaboration of elegance. M. Bonnat can hardly be equalled in the rendering of gorgeous millinery, but this is not the one end of the portrait-painter. Better far is a very curious group of a provincial municipal council by M. E. Buland, unpleasant as are its shortcomings. It is hard, and that the men are all sitting for their portraits is too evident. But the character in the faces of the Mayor at the head of the table, of the officials around it, of the gendarmes in full uniform, and the careful but unobtrusive accessories—the printed announcements, the flag, the eagle—are not only delightfully but most artistically rendered; while the chances are, that, toned down by time, the picture as a whole will lose much of its present hardness. It is worth pointing out that two of the other most notable portraits come from Great Britain. They are both by Mr. Guthrie, the young Scotch artist who has lately been so prominent in English galleries, and one in particular, of a man on horseback, gives with success the very essential atmospheric qualities so little understood by the average Salon portrait-painter; but the absence of light in the picture makes it seem likely that much of it was painted in the studio.

In landscape the Champs-Élysées Salon makes a braver showing. The influence of Claude Monet is apparent, though, of course, it is in the rival exhibition that the newest "open-air" theories and experiments will be found. Strangely enough, this influence extends to the technique of men who are quite out of sympathy with his aims and objects, and shows itself in a disagreeable, spotty method of work prevalent this year, and seen even in the canvases of M. Bonnat. Treatment which with M. Monet has the greatest breadth, with his imitators who do not understand him degenerates into mere niggling. The art of landscape-painting has been so entirely revolutionized by Monet that the work of some of its most eminent exponents, who have not fallen under the charm, would seem to belong to the galleries of the Louvre rather than to contemporary exhibitions. Contrast with more modern methods, however, cannot destroy the classical beauty of the landscapes of M. Français, nor the Corot-like grace of those of M. Harpignies, and both these men have been steadfast in their allegiance to the older society. M. Jules Dupré is also here, and, true to his name, he looks at nature through the eyes of the Romanticists of 1830, giving a quality to his painting which makes it stand out with no small distinction from the work which surrounds it. But M. Nozal, who likewise has not been tempted away to the rival camp, is far more modern in feeling and treatment, and his fine effects of frost and clouds are among the most distinguished canvases in the Champs-Élysées. Perhaps of all the followers of Monet who are here, no one has so well mastered the leader's teachings and developed a style entirely his own as M. E. Baillet, whose September Morning, with its delicate and true study of mist and sunshine, would be a masterpiece in any show. In the rendering of values, Mr. Bisbing, in a study of calves, is particularly successful. And a little group of men who live and paint at Étapes, a fishing village near Boulogne, bid fair to develop a school and a style of their own. It would be as useless as tedious, however, to keep on cataloguing the good landscapes. Moreover, far more important than the merit of individual examples is the fact, proved by the general excellence, that it is in this branch that French art is most healthy and vigorous, not even the paralyzing atmosphere of conservative headquarters stifling its strong vitality.

I wish that as much could be said for the water colors and pastels. In the galleries devoted to them the show is most deplorably dull. Work that depends for effect upon its freshness and "go" and directness is hopelessly perfunctory and lifeless and formal. It is clear at a glance that the pastellists and aquarellists of vigorous talent must have emigrated to the Champ de Mars. Here and there, rare exceptions do but emphasize the prevailing dulness. There is plenty of "go" in M. Ochoa's pastel portraits, with Parisian streets for backgrounds, of crispness in M. Vauthier's pastels of snow and sunlight on the Seine, of directness in M. Reyzner's pastel study of an old woman. Two Americans help to redeem the collection: Mr. Rolshoven in a pastel, a decorative arrangement of a woman, foliage, and sunlight (though he has another, a nude, so uninteresting that it might better have stayed in his studio), and Mr. John Fraser, in a water color, an impression of a strong cloud effect in the Highlands. But all the rest is weariness to the flesh.

Matters are not much better in the black-and-white rooms, though wood-engraving, in which the French excel, as usual, holds its own. M. Baude, M. Florian, and M. Leluc are once again to the fore with examples of technical supremacy. I learned that M. de Mare, in his etchings of bronzes for the Collection Spitzer, rivals Jacquemart very closely; and I was also struck with some very clever sketches on copper by M. Ardail, and two little plates by Mr. J. D. Watson. The Shakspere etching, published in New York, I believe, by Mr. Frederick Keppel, is here, and so is M. Flameng's etching of the Aldine Press for the Grolier Club. But of original drawings, in pen and ink or wash or charcoal, I

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saw none of the least importance or cleverness, though it was funny to find as strong an illustrator as M. Jeanniot trying to do the Cruikshank act in a series of illustrations for a French book.

Little more can be said for the sculpture. But here again the high average of the French artist is very striking to any one just come from the English galleries. There are rows and rows of busts and statuettes of equal and genuine merit, good in their expression of character and in the knowledge revealed in the modelling. M. Ringel d'Ilzach himself is not represented—he having transferred his allegiance to the Champ de Mars—but the little medallions in low relief which his name suggests, are not only many, but of much artistic excellence. In the more ambitious work, in the larger statues, there is the same general high level, the same absence of any very strikingly original examples, though M. Falguières and M. Mercié, it must be admitted, are unusually good—the former in a new Diana, nude and standing, the latter in a delightful female figure, sitting and draped, with a little satyr at her side.

Technical excellence there is in abundance in the Champs-Élysées; for artistic individuality one must go to the Champ de Mars. N. N.

ROUMANILLE AND THE FÉLIBRES.

London, June 2, 1891.

On the 24th of May Joseph Roumanille, the father of the Provençal *félibres*, died in Avignon. Twenty or thirty years ago the announcement of his death would have made a much greater stir in the literary world of France. When Mistral's 'Mirèio' first took that world by storm, the little group of poets and prose-writers who, far away in the Bouches-du-Rhône, were ambitiously striving to revive the language of the Troubadours, became for the time the literary lions of the day. They were, however, but modest lions at the best. They lived far from Paris. Their work was steeped in the colors of the human life they knew and loved—the simple outdoor life of a people at once vigorous and childlike. In their verse was all the sweetness of the thyme-scented hills and the olive-grown valleys of Provence, the freshness of the harvest, the gayety of the vintage. It was like a whiff of pure country air after the heavily laden atmosphere breathed in the 'Fleurs du Mal' of Baudelaire or the 'Comédie Humaine' of Balzac. But as no rural charm could long keep M. Coquelin's *Parisien* from his beloved boulevards, so the naïve tales of Roumanille, the pastoral romance of Mistral, had but little chance when pitted against the naturalist's novel, the *décadent* poem. The new schools that were being formed in Paris offered far greater attractions to the modern man who exists on excitement. With the De Goncourts and Zola giving their pitiless studies of human evil and human wrong, with Catulle Mendès and Huysmans analyzing disease in its grimmest moral forms, with Verlaine and Rimbaud acting on life's stage their own dark tragedy, only the few had time to remember the *félibres* working and singing in the clear hot sunshine of the South.

But in the future, in the annals of French literature, the Provençal revival will hold very much the place of the Brook Farm experiment in the social history of the United States. It may not have had the influence its founders hoped for it, but its results have been very widely felt. To have originated this movement is the one great incident in Roumanille's life, which, in every other way, seems to have been as peaceful and uneventful as that of any little bourgeois in a French provincial town. He was born in 1818 in Saint-Remy, and came very young to Avignon. At one time he was on the staff of the *Commune*, the first of all the papers sold for a sou. And for many years, and until his death, as visitors to Avignon know, he was publisher and bookseller in the Rue Saint-Agricol. It was in his own shop that I first saw him a few years ago, a hearty old man, speaking French with the slow, gentle drawl of the true Provençal. There was nothing that pleased him better than to have a customer who came to buy the Provençal books of which he of course was the publisher, and, thanks to him, I found in his shop many whose names even I had not known before. His days were thus spent between writing his own books and selling those of other men—a striking contrast to the feverish, artificial existence of the Paris man of letters.

It is said that Roumanille's desire to have his old mother read his stories first led him to print these in his native Provençal. The origin of his wider ambition is less definitely known; to him, a genuine son of the Midi, it probably "came" as belief in his three-fingered flute did to Daudet's *Tambourinaire*. However this may have been, he very quickly gathered about him a band of young enthusiasts, all the sons of peasants even as he was: the people were to be the saviours of the people, as Lamartine said. And all were equally eager to do again in this prosaic nineteenth century what the Troubadours of old had done for the popular language of their day. The Midi would once more go forth and conquer France. To accomplish this great end, they met at Fontségugne one day in 1854, and solemnly formed the association known as the Félibrige. They were very much in earnest, these young men who called themselves *félibres*—why, no one exactly knew. Aubanel, with all the delicious exaggeration of the Méridional, could even foresee and warn the French Academy of the age to come, when "Sachez que vous serez tombés longtemps alors que le Provençal, toujours jeune, parlera encore de vous avec pitié." Their literary aspirations became a religion to them, their little association a church. They had all the consciousness of the importance of their mission of the London Socialist or Ibsenite, but with it they combined qualifications rarer in the self-appointed missionary—ability and good work.

Fortunately they were not unwilling to talk about themselves, nor have several of their admirers been more silent. Consequently, though of all save Mistral we know little individually, of them collectively we seem to have learned a great deal. Mistral gives us the names of the first *félibres*—the high priests, as it were, of the little church—in the sixth canto of 'Mirèio.' But it is perhaps Daudet who lets us have the most intimate glimpse into the daily life of those men together, who tells us how they met and worked and played in their less formal seasons—Daudet, who has since lost favor in their sight, and towards whom, in his home in Paris, they probably, like the men of Tarascon, would be ready to shake their fists with the same cry of rage, "Oh! ce Daudet." It is in the delightful account of how he came to write the 'Lettres de mon Moulin,' that his reminiscences of the early fervent days of the Félibrige, when there were no schisms or dissensions in the church, are to be found. It is there he records the meetings in Maillane, Mistral's village; in the Alyscamps at Arles, where, to the music of the crickets and the shrieking of the engines, Aubanel read some fine poem or drama; in Les Baux, through whose strange, broken streets they wandered singing their songs; in Avignon or in l'Île de la Barthélasse, under the shadow of the great Papal palace. One feels as if one too had been in the rooms of Mathieu at Châteauneuf-des-Papes on the occasion of the chariot race in July, drinking the famous golden wine of the popes and listening to the verses of Mistral; or at those *ferrades* where the peasants applauded the work of Roumanille and Aubanel and joined in the chorus of the hymns to the sun—"Grand Soleil de la Provence"—and then in a long line, the *félibres* leading, danced many a gay *farandole*. In the contrast between their haunts and amusements and the cafés in the Latin Quarter, the balls in Montmartre *brasseries*, the resorts of a Mendès or a Huysmans, we have the simple explanation of the difference between the work of the *félibres* and that of the *décadents*.

These meetings, these wanderings were for themselves and their own beloved people. For the instruction of the world at large they published the *Armana Prouvençau*, and that all the world might read it they began their most serious undertaking, the 'Dictionary of the Langue d'Oc,' which—perhaps because their ardor has cooled, perhaps because the task was too herculean—still awaits completion. For the public encouragement of their great work of reform, they instituted their poetic tournament, not unlike the famous *Jeux Floraux* of Clémence Isaure in Toulouse; and it was not long before they met with their first success and recognition. Mistral's 'Mirèio,' with his own French translation, was the first of their productions to make the literary sensation which they believed to be their due. Thanks to Lamartine, to whom he had dedicated it, and to Saint-René Taillandier, who wrote a paper about it for the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, it was much talked about and widely read, and France awoke to the knowledge of the truly romantic movement which had been inaugurated in her southern provinces. But the book which followed 'Mirèio' scarcely equalled it in broad human interest; much of it was either not translated at all, or else done into indifferent French. Not very long after, Zola and Daudet began to publish their stories of Provençal life in the languages, not merely of a few Departments, but of all France; and the Rougons and Macquarts of Plassans, Numà Roumestan of Aps, quickly became more popular than the Nerto or Mirèio of Mistral. Gradually the *félibres* faded out of sight again, and, indeed, but for Daudet, would have been almost forgotten except by a very small saving remnant.

But while few have remembered the leaders of the great movement, that movement has brought Provence into a prominence and given it a name which it has hardly enjoyed since the days of King René. Many have hurried to reap a harvest for themselves in the field where Roumanille and Aubanel and Mistral had sowed good seed. Every year now the *félibres* and the *cigales* of the Midi have their Congress in the towns of Languedoc or Provence. Last summer I was in Toulouse when they met, and went wandering from Auch to Agen and Lourdes and the Pyrenees. I had intended to be present at some of their reunions when poems in the Langue d'Oc were read, and the prospects of the language of the Troubadours discussed. But I found that none of the original *félibres* were there, while the most conspicuous men were the journalists who, in *chapeaux calicots*, had come down from Paris to report the proceedings. This

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summer they are going to Nîmes and Arles, Martigues, that enchanting little Venice of Provence, and Saint-Chamas, where the *joûtes* are held on the Étang de Berre; and when I was last in those towns, the people were already looking forward to their coming. Of late years Provence has been made a favorite background for the scenes of the French novelist, and we have, not only Daudet and Zola, but Jean Aicard and Paul Arène and Paul Mariéton and many another lesser light adding to the long list of Provençal tales. With Englishmen and Americans also Provence is now the fashion, and they, too, are exploiting it for literary purposes. The artist as well is abroad in that fair southern land. I found an entire colony in Martigues, which is as much of a painter's camp as Étapes or Concarneau. The Salons in Paris this year attest to the artistic popularity of that country. At the Champ de Mars is Montenard, with his Arlesian arena and Provençal olive orchards. At the Champs-Elysées Martigues bids fair to rival Venice as a favorite subject, while the big canvas of Gervais—one of the Martigues group—which won him a second medal, shows the three Maries of the old Provençal legend against a broad Martigan background; and another painter has sought inspiration in the story of Ourrias, Mirèio's rejected lover.

With the founder of the Félibrige it fared still more strangely. But for Roumanille, the *félibres* would not have existed, and yet he never achieved the personal success of Mistral, and until the end he remained virtually unknown. It certainly can be no exaggeration to say that for the hundred who have read 'Mirèio,' there is but one reader of Roumanille's delightful tales. The reason for this is not in the quality of his work; not Daudet himself has written anything with greater charm, greater simplicity than 'Li Conte Prouvençau.' Indeed, one of Daudet's most artistic successes, 'Le Curé de Cucugnan,' is a translation from one of these very tales, and to many of the others he is only in a lesser degree indebted—how much, you may find out from the people *là-bas*. The spirit of 'Les Lettres de mon Moulin,' and 'Les Contes de Lundi,' breathes through them all, and in one irresistible story—too long to give here—of a man of Tarascon in the Court of Heaven, we seem to have the germ from which the great Tartarin trilogy sprang. Roumanille's verse, too, has much lyrical sweetness, and is as rhythmical and full of local color as Mistral's. But a large portion of his prose and poetry alike has never been translated into French, and even to the Frenchman Provençal is as essentially a foreign language as Italian or Spanish. I have known men from the North who have lived in Arles for several years, and who even now can use only the easiest every-day phrases. I am fairly familiar with French, and yet last summer, when, day after day, on the Rialto of Martigues I listened to the fishermen talking as they unloaded their night's haul or stood throwing their *fischuaro*, or fish-rake, with which the Martigan fishes while on shore, for all I could understand they might as well have been speaking the Greek of the first settlers of their Mediterranean coast. The consequence is that while the *gardian* of the Camargue or the vintager of La Cran may understand and appreciate Roumanille's songs and tales, to the cultivated and educated Frenchman they are simply unintelligible. And again, when he has been translated, he has only in one or two rare instances been very happy in his translators. His own French is without the rude force of Mistral's; he has but once had a Daudet to do him justice.

It is but right to say that my attention—and the same, of course, is true of all Americans—was turned to Provence and its poets and its people by Miss Harriet Waters Preston's admirable translation of 'Mirèio.' To her belongs the credit of having discovered the most beautiful, the most characteristic, the most interesting part of that really unknown country—France.

ELIZABETH ROBINS PENNELL.

DEMOCRATIC ASSUMPTIONS.—III.

LIBERTY.

LONDON, May 30, 1891.

WHAT is the true relation between democracy and individual liberty?

The older democrats believed, with undoubted sincerity, that the supremacy of the people secured the existence of individual freedom. This was a conclusion in which Continental democrats who were disciples of Rousseau, and English Radicals who were followers of Bentham, though arguing from different premises, practically agreed. From the outbreak of the French Revolution to the day when Tocqueville gave currency to ideas summed up in the expression the "tyranny of the majority," no sincere Liberal doubted that, in the main, popular government meant the prevalence of liberty. This belief, moreover, in common with all the prominent articles of the democratic faith, was supported by obvious and important facts. The movement which throughout the civilized world has established the rule of numbers, delivered whole classes of men and women from the particular kind of oppression which existed more or less in every European State, whatever its form of constitution, till towards the end of the seventeenth century, and throughout the European Continent till a later date. There is now to be found no civilized country (unless it be Russia) where a private person is not better secured from unjust imprisonment and other forms of arbitrary tyranny than before 1789 were the inhabitants of any of the leading countries of Europe except Great Britain. Certain forms of expression have, it should be noted, ceased to exist. Religious persecution is unknown. It were impossible to find anywhere any system resembling arrest by *lettres de cachet*. The meanest and most scurrilous penny-a-liner is safe from the outrages and insults which fell upon or threatened Voltaire when he ruled the undisputed head of the Republic of Letters. A host, moreover, of monopolies, of privileges, or of exemptions, which a hundred years ago benefited, in every country throughout the world, one part of the people at the expense of the rest, have vanished even from memory; yet social and political inequalities which are now forgotten embittered the daily lives of thousands far more than striking and outrageous acts of oppression. If any one wishes to see the *ancien régime* in all its hatefulness, he should study it not in France, but at Bern or Venice.

Nor is the only connection between democracy and freedom to be found in the fact that the uprising of the oppressed led, from the nature of things, to the destruction of oppression. A matter of far greater importance is that the democratic movement was originally imbued with a spirit of liberty. Change is the condition of life, and innovations which in their very essence involved change filled the world with a new sense of hopefulness, of strength, of a free and renovated vitality. No doubt the Revolutionists of France were many of them among the most detestable and despicable tyrants that the world has seen. Some of them held theories which led directly to despotism. But the admission that this was so is not really inconsistent with the assertion that the democrats of a century or sixty years ago heartily desired, according to their lights—often very imperfect lights—to promote the freedom of individuals. "Civil and religious liberty" was the watchword of the English Whigs and Radicals, and it was in its day no idle cry. If the words have grown a little out of date, the main reason is that civil oppression and religious persecution (on the part, at any rate, of governments) have come nearly to an end. There existed, in short, till comparatively recent times, a real and unmistakable connection between the democratic movement and liberty in the sense in which the word is used by such a writer as John Mill—that is to say, as meaning the power of each individual to regulate all matters of conduct which primarily concern himself according to his own judgment or fancy without the restraint of legal or social compulsion or control.

The proof of this may be found in the attitude of Carlyle. His objection to democracy is, that the kind of liberty which Mill held to be the greatest of blessings, was at bottom a curse to mankind. Carlyle never contended that democracy failed to encourage individual freedom; what he did contend was that individual freedom means moral and intellectual anarchy. As, moreover, I have again and again insisted throughout these letters, public opinion is influenced far more by obvious facts and appearances than by argument. Democratic countries, such as the United States, England, or France, have long been the countries where each man could, apparently at least, most freely obey the dictates of his conscience, of his private judgment, or of his caprice. For most men this was enough to establish the fact that democracy fosters liberty.

It was, it may be suspected, rather the influence of phenomena to be observed in the United States forty or fifty years ago than any abstract argument which, for the first time, shook the faith of modern Liberals in the necessary connection between popular government and individual freedom of thought and action. It were hard to imagine two books more unlike than 'Democracy in America' and 'Martin Chuzzlewit.' The works stand as far apart as their authors. Tocqueville and Dickens have nothing in common except the one fact that they were both men of genius. But, for all that, the Frenchman's analysis of democratic society, and Dickens's picture (or caricature) of social life in the United States, are the record of a special phase of opinion. The French publicist and the English satirist each show in their writings what now seems simple-minded surprise at finding that a commonwealth might be very democratic, and yet public opinion might in the same commonwealth be neither very enlightened nor very tolerant. The Englishman and the Frenchman alike pressed upon the attention of the European world the new idea that the tyranny of kings or oligarchies might possibly be succeeded by the tyranny of numbers. Every educated man who has noted changes of sentiment, and whose memory can stretch back thirty or forty years, can recall the immense influence which this dread of the despotism of the majority exercised on thinkers in England, if not throughout Europe. The attraction for men like Mill and Greg of the late Thomas Hare's scheme and other plans for the representation of minorities, lay in the belief that these somewhat mechanical devices were inventions which made it possible for thought-

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ful Liberals to combine unshaken faith in democracy with strenuous opposition to the tyranny of public opinion. What may be the merits of these inventions, it is not my purpose to discuss. They are referred to here only as a sign of the new dread of the oppression to be feared from majorities.

A candid critic, however, must admit that, as contended by Mr. Bryce, in his 'American Commonwealth,' the charge that, in the United States at any rate, the majority tyrannizes over the minority, has not been established. Many of the phenomena which originally suggested or justified the accusation were connected with the existence of slavery; and negro slavery, which was never a natural outgrowth of democracy, might corrupt free institutions, but could not exemplify the inherent vices of popular government. Experience also has proved that American democracy had the strength to cast off, so to speak, a disease which threatened the very existence of the nation. It may, further, be doubted whether the school of thinkers of whom John Mill was at one time the acknowledged representative, did not, in their attacks upon the alleged despotism of majorities, confound the uniformity with the tyranny of public opinion. They, in words, maintained that the rule of number led, or might lead, to the suppression of freedom of thought or of discussion. Their real, though unexpressed, complaint was, that freedom to think does not of itself and of necessity produce originality in thinking. The complaint may be more well grounded than men are generally aware; but it is a different thing from a charge of oppression. However this may be, one thing is certain: the warnings of thinkers against the possible tyranny of opinion did not, and from the nature of things could not, shake the belief of democrats in the intimacy of the alliance between democracy and freedom.

The foundations of this faith are now threatened, not by the assaults of conservatism, but by a change which, during the last twenty or thirty years, has become very marked in the policy and in the sentiment of modern democracy. Freedom has brought many blessings to rich and poor alike; but it has not removed the difference between riches and poverty, between prosperity and misfortune. Though no reasonable man can doubt that the position of the body of the people is, certainly in England, and probably throughout the whole civilized world, far less painful, if we cannot exactly say far happier, than it was a century ago, yet the contrast between the classes and the masses, between millionaires and paupers, has become, if not greater, yet more observable than in the days of our fathers and grandfathers. Exaggerated hopes in the benefits to be derived from merely political innovations, such as the extension of the suffrage, directed men's attention almost exclusively towards the promotion of alterations of a constitutional character. Once let it be thought that liberty cannot of itself cure the diseases of society, and men who suffer, or think they suffer, from social maladies will naturally turn towards the panaceas offered by the believers in Socialism. When, as at the present day, the discontent of those who suffer is reinforced by the sympathy of classes so prosperous that they feel their own happiness impaired by the bare idea that their poorer neighbors should not enjoy all the pleasures of life, it is natural enough that democrats should become Socialists, and that the aim of democracy should tend to the promotion not of individual liberty, but of social, and in the main material, well-being.

Disguise the fact as men may, Socialism, in all its various forms, is and must be the opponent of individual liberty. Even if popular leaders tried to attain more or less Socialistic aims only through the agency of the State, this attempt would promote schemes, and even more surely would foster a condition of opinion, unfavorable to the right of every man to regulate all matters of conduct which primarily concern himself, in accordance with his own conception of right or of happiness. But it is not through the State alone that modern reformers or innovators attempt to carry out their ideas into action. Associations, leagues, unions, societies, in short, in which men with more or less respect for the law of the land band together for the support of the principles or course of action which commends itself to a particular class of persons, and for the suppression of opinions and hindrance of actions which the particular class condemn, are the most striking phenomena of the day. Such leagues or associations meet us at every turn. It is likely enough that the day is not far distant when capitalists on the one hand and workmen on the other will stand face to face, not man against man, but league against league. This state of things may, it is possible, have its advantages, but it will certainly produce, as the tendency towards it already produces, an indifference for the freedom of individuals. This is so for two reasons. A syndicate of merchants or a union of workmen must attempt to constrain the action of all rivals who do not belong to the syndicate or union. The coercion exercised may or may not be limited by respect for law, but in any case it militates against the unrestrained action of individuals.

Respect, again, for the law of the land is, at any rate in the modern world, the essential condition of private liberty. But the loyalty to a man's union or league tends to shake, if it does not actually shake, his loyalty to the law. Look at the matter from whichever side you will, and you are led to the same conclusion. The alliance between democracy and freedom is shaken; men are beginning to doubt whether the right of every man to regulate his own life (so long as he respects the rights of others) according to his own will, is compatible with the happiness of the majority of the people. The doubt may or may not be well founded—on this matter I say nothing. What I insist upon is, that the doubt exists. Its mere existence threatens to deprive the democratic movement of that element of enthusiasm for liberty which has been hitherto the source of what I may term its spiritual life.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE RECESSION OF NIAGARA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter on "The Recession of the Niagara Gorge," in the *Nation* of March 19, has brought to my hands an interesting description of the Falls as seen in 1832 by an English gentleman still living, Mr. Henry Ransford of Brighton, Sussex. He writes:

"I believe I possess the oldest extant sketch of the Falls, which I took in 1832, with a camera lucida, from the top of Forsyth's Hotel, so that the distances and position of the various points are correct. The estimate of Sir Charles Lyell, that the Falls recede one foot in a year, is erroneous, from careful observation. When revisiting Canada thirty-eight years afterwards, I took the sketch and the camera with me, to see what changes had taken place during that period. The edge of the fall, where it joins Goat Island, had not perceptibly receded; on the Canadian side the ground above the side of Table Rock before it fell was much the same; but the curve of the horse-shoe part, so called, had receded superficially, thus widening the broken water of the rapids, from the surface only having worn away; a comparatively small part of the edge had been worn deep down the front. I have seen a statement that the distance between Table Rock and Goat Island was 1,650 yards. My sketch is only seven inches across (not being a front view), being therefore on a scale of 236 yards to the inch. Taking a position where Table Rock stood, in a line with the junction at Goat Island, I paced carefully up stream and found the horse-shoe as described extended back 236 yards. Not quite half way from Goat Island, the straight edge had worn away (*i. e., cut back a section*) some 240 yards by 60 deep. Two hundred yards further on, another opening had worn back some distance at so sharp an angle that the water was pouring over *facing* where I stood, instead of being in a line with the rest of the fall.

"The American Fall in 1832 was a straight line like a tablecloth hanging over a rail; in 1870 it had receded in a perfect bow thirty yards deep, but the sides unaltered. I measured by pacing; being over six feet, I can step a yard very correctly. . . . On my last visit, in 1879, I observed the *opening* in the Horse-shoe Fall, where the falling water faced me, had widened and receded considerably, but not the whole of the horseshoe. Another twelve years have no doubt caused further recession."

Mr. Ransford adds: "My travelling days are over, although strong and healthy for my age. If I live to the end of August, I commence my eighty-eighth year."

Mr. Ransford is mistaken in thinking his sketch the oldest one of the Falls. The oldest is that given in Father Hennepin's description of the Falls, which he visited in 1678. A good cut of this view is given in Parkman's 'Historic Handbook of the Northern Tour,' p. 93. The second oldest that I know is in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for January, 1751.

EDWARD G. BOURNE.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, June 1, 1891.

AUTOMATIC DEMONSTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Important political changes are usually the result of some considerable disaster which makes the minds of men receptive, and it seems as if the finances of the United States might, sooner or later, administer a lesson sharp enough to overcome the reluctance of Congress to admit the Secretary of the Treasury to a share in its debates.

In the last two months we have exported an unusually large amount of gold, and though the "bulls" make light of it as an ordinary commercial transaction, there is a general and uneasy feeling that it may mean much more than that. The financial condition of Europe is far from reassuring. The complications in South America, including not merely the Argentine Republic, but Brazil and Chili also, have not yet worked out their full effect. There is talk of a further large demand for gold from Russia. The fearful militarism on the Continent engenders suspicion and unrest, and last, but not least, immense amounts of English capital are said in the last few years to have been embarked in joint-stock speculations in this country.

If the pull comes from the other side, there is also a push from this. Though we have not free coinage of silver, the Government purchases are enough sooner or later to land us on a silver basis, and the moment that comes in sight there may be a rush for and a demonetization of gold, which the existing silver coinage will be quite insufficient to replace.

To cap the climax comes the condition of the Treasury. For the last twenty years we have

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pursued a course of steady inflation of banking credit, first through the national banks and then through State banks disguised under the name of "trust companies"; and it is a significant fact that, from the adoption of the Constitution down to the civil war, all serious trouble has come from State banks, a United States bank having twice been set up to drag them out of it, and overthrown as soon as they were relieved. From an historical point of view, the future relation of the national-bank system to the State trust companies will be very interesting. However that may be, several times during these twenty years, when this inflation has threatened its natural result of financial panic, the Treasury has stepped forward with its large reserve of gold, bought up bonds, and averted the danger, thus producing in the public mind the kind of reasoning which powerful medicine does in a man of dissipated habits, namely, that if the consequences of excessive indulgence are so easily relieved, it is not worth while to exercise self-denial. Now, however, it happens for the first time that the Treasury is not in a condition to play the part of *deus ex machinâ*. Whatever other incapacity Congress may have developed, it has shown itself able to get rid of any given amount of surplus. Not only is the Secretary drawing down the bank depositaries, but he has actually—*quantum mutatus ab illo*—come into the market with a bid for the renewal of the 4½ per cent. bonds due in September. The difference in his relation to the money market is a very serious factor.

In all this I am not attempting anything so rash as a prophecy of the money market, but only laying stress upon the fact that the greatest evil the public mind has to contend with is uncertainty. It has, and with reason, lost all confidence in Congress. It does not know whether that body will resort to free coinage of silver or pile up a new Pension or River and Harbor Bill, or whether it will repeal or double up the McKinley Bill. Could there be anything which would spread a greater feeling of relief through every honest financial interest in the country than the knowledge that, in the first days of next December, the man placed at the head of the national finances would stand up in Congress, make an oral exposition of the state of affairs and of his plans for meeting it, and would then hold himself in readiness to meet every comer in public debate? Compare this with the present method of casting materials, as heterogeneous as those of the witches in "Macbeth," into the caldron of the Committees of Ways and Means and Appropriations, and then waiting anxiously for six months to see what kind of conglomerate will result from it.

We have no man competent to do such work. No, and you never will have unless you try him. It is like refusing to go into the water till you know how to swim. Suppose it were a question of finding the best billiard-player in the United States. A candidate would not be selected because he was a sound Republican or Democrat, or as the largest contributor to the campaign fund, or as having most influence in the local caucuses. If he were, it would not be surprising that his supporters should be reluctant to have him play billiards. The obvious way would be to set up a table and invite competition among players of reputation. If the returns were published in the papers, there would be no difficulty in getting the best man, even if it depended upon the votes of all the population of the United States. Exactly the same process would produce a first-class financier, as it will be hardly denied that the material exists in the United States in plenty and of a quality unsurpassed in the world.

Supposing the worst should follow from the somewhat dismal indications which I began by pointing out, it would be more than compensated for if it opened men's eyes to the only way in which public finances can be successfully conducted. G. B.

Boston, June 13, 1891.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. announce a 'History of Modern Civilization,' adapted from the work of Gustave Ducoudray; a 'Canadian Guide-Book,' by Charles G. D. Roberts; and 'The Three Miss Kings,' a novel by an Australian writer, Ada Cambridge.

A cheaper edition (the fifth) of Mr. Henry T. Finck's 'Romantic Love and Personal Beauty' will be issued early in July by Macmillan & Co. They are also on the point of bringing out a third and revised edition, in one volume, at a moderate price, of Dr. Martineau's 'Types of Ethical Theory,' for the use of students.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Stones for Building and Decoration,' by George P. Merrill of the National Museum at Washington.

Ginn & Co. will shortly publish 'The Modalist, or the Laws of Rational Conviction,' a text-book of formal logic by Prof. E. J. Hamilton of Hamilton College.

Peter Paul & Bro., Buffalo, will issue 'The Life and Times of Kateri Tekakwitha, the Lily of the Mohawks, 1656–1680,' by Ellen H. Walworth.

'The Life Romance of an Algebraist,' by George Winslow Pierce, is in the press of J. G. Cupples, Boston.

Breitkopf & Härtel, Leipzig, will soon issue the third volume of Oesterlein's 'Katalog einer Richard Wagner Bibliothek.' These three volumes contain the titles and dates of about 30,000 articles, pamphlets, and books relating to Wagner. Oesterlein is the director of the Wagner Museum in Vienna.

Robert Bonner's Sons have got out an edition of Mary Howitt's translation of Hans Christian Andersen's 'Improvisatore.' The print is clear, but the illustrations are of a feeble sort.

It is only necessary to say of the new edition of Mr. W. C. Prime's 'I Go A-fishing,' just brought out by Harper & Bros., that the typography is handsome, and the deep green paper cover, with decorative stamp, well devised and decidedly tasteful.

Last month we made mention of a reprint of George Henry Lewes's 'Principles of Success in Literature,' emanating from the University of California. The utility of this work for the class-room has occurred also to Prof. Fred. N. Scott of the University of Michigan, whose publishers—and they have done well by him—are Allyn & Bacon, Boston. Prof. Scott furnishes an introduction and notes, and has corrected the typographical and other blemishes of the papers as originally printed in the *Fortnightly*.

Under the title 'Lamb's Essays: a Biographical Study' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), Elizabeth Deering Hanscom has collected some of the personal essays of Lamb, such as those on the Inner Temple, Christ's Hospital, the South Sea House, Mackery End, Dream Children, etc., making fifteen in all, and has annotated the personal and local allusions. The volume thus makes a kind of fragmentary autobiography, and has the charm of Lamb's most confidential and affectionate writing. A Life, prefixed, gives the necessary outlines of fact, which the selections fill up and vivify.

An *édition de luxe* of "Antony and Cleopatra" (New York: Duprat), printed at Paris by D. Jouaust, is well calculated to tempt the collector by the faultless taste of its typography, fine paper and margins, and indeed all the perfections that belong to the printer's art. It is a beautiful volume in the most elegant French style. Mr. W. J. Rolfe furnishes an Introduction, in which he quotes largely from Shakspere critics, and pushes to what we think an absurd extreme the suggestion that Shakspere drew *Cleopatra* after the "dark lady" of the Sonnets. The quotation of the 129th Sonnet, with the application made of it, is nothing less than offensive. Seventeen illustrations by Paul Avril give a more pronounced Parisian stamp to the volume. The edition is limited to 150 copies, distributed into three classes, differing in paper and expense.

The Rev. W. H. Lyon has written, and the Unitarian Sunday-School Society, Boston, has published, 'A Study of the Sects,' which is unique in its character, so very sympathetic are the accounts of the different sects of Christendom, among which the Jews are properly included. A chapter on the Jews is introductory, and then follows a chapter on "Doctrines Held by Christians," in which a little more on the great confessions would not have come amiss, especially at the present time. Next we have a series of chapters on the different sects, each in two parts: first an historical account and then a critical estimate, which is in every case a serious attempt on the writer's part to put himself in the place of those of whom he writes. In almost every case the chapters have been submitted to some competent member of the sect discussed; the corrections made have been accepted, and so the greatest fairness has been assured. There is no good reason why this manual should not be used in the Sunday-schools of all the sects which it describes.

From Mr. G. H. Wilson (152 Tremont St., Boston) we have received the seventh issue of his 'Musical Year-Book of the United States (1890-1891),' a very useful little volume of 140 pages, convenient for reference, and containing in its lists of performances, as well as in a retrospective chapter, many suggestive facts regarding the present state of musical affairs in this country. Mr. Wilson, although a Bostonian, and justly proud of the orchestral concerts, the chamber music and vocal performances in his city, admits that as long as Boston is bereft of opera, all arguments claiming general musical precedence for that city are futile. It is the German opera that has made New York the musical centre of America; but with the reappearance of flimsy Italian opera at our Metropolitan house, Boston may again become—what it used to be—the musical metropolis of the country. One of the most interesting parts of Mr. Wilson's 'Year Book' is the excellent index, because it shows at a glance the comparative popularity in America of various composers. Some of the Americans, like Paine, Foote, Buck, MacDowell, and Chadwick, have a good showing. It is encouraging to see Bach with eighteen entries, but the fact that Franz has only five indicates the weakest point of our musical culture—the shameful neglect of German *Lieder* in our concert halls. The most striking lesson given by this index, however, is the almost utter disappearance of Italian music. Bellini, Donizetti, Rossini, and Verdi together have only twenty-nine entries, while Wagner alone has 183.

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Mitchell's, 830 Broadway, has reprinted an edition of 100 copies of Mr. Henry B. Dawson's 'Records of the City of New Amsterdam in New Netherland,' vol. i., which originally appeared in 1867, in an edition equally restricted. These curious economic and police decrees of Peter Stuyvesant, Director-General, ranging from 1647 to 1655, are the earliest records of our corporation. They are given in an English version. The pages have broad margins and the volume is very prettily bound.

The bound volume of the *Century Magazine* completed in April, and variously numbered 41 and 19 in the old and new series, is most distinguished by the first of the extracts from the Talleyrand Memoirs. The California papers have been continued; the whole of Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith's veracious story, "Col. Carter of Cartersville," has been given; the beginnings of a future book—a series of characteristic American pictures, with biographical sketches—have been made; the luxurious change of home of the New York club of which the magazine is a namesake, is celebrated with illustrations, and the rest of the contents presents the well-known miscellany on which we have commented from month to month.

A certain number of colleges now offer science courses for students intending to study medicine, or otherwise engage in biological work, and the Illinois State Board of Health, which has the power to grant licenses to local practitioners, desires to make up a science course fit to be recommended for the above purpose to all colleges disposed to adopt it. A circular asking for practical suggestions has been sent out by the Secretary, Dr. John H. Rauch, whose address is Springfield, Ill.

The Deerfield, Mass., Summer School of History and Romance will begin its sixth season on July 2, and be in session throughout the month. The list of lecturers embraces many well-known names of literary men and women. The President is Mr. L. J. B. Lincoln.

—In the Papers of the American Historical Association, Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard treats of "Karl Follen and the German Liberal Movement, 1815–1819," with a special view to the paradox involved in the transatlantic revolutionary aims and methods of Follen, and his cisatlantic mildness, gentleness, and even saintliness. He takes for his point of departure Whittier's beautiful portrait of the victim of the fiery *Lexington*, and then briefly describes the Burschenschaft patriotic organization of Young Germany after the country had been freed from Napoleon only to fall under the reactionary control of the Congress of Vienna. He then avails himself of the more recent literature illustrating this movement to set forth Follen's doctrine of resistance to tyrants, which was not essentially different from the Nihilist doctrine of the modern Russian, and in the light of which the fate of "Polonius" Kotzebue and Von Ibell could neither be deplored nor condemned. The lesson taught by these assassinations, which had no director or accomplice in Follen, though Prof. Francke says it is impossible not to trace them both back to his teaching, was that which the Nihilists are learning: the millennium was not hastened but retarded by violence. Follen became an exile, to the profit of this country, where he passed, and truly, for one of the mildest-mannered of men. He was the first professor of German literature at Harvard, introduced there the gymnastics of the Turners, and had every prospect of ending his days in the service of the University. His very temperate support of the abolition movement, however, cost him his position at the expiration of his engagement, and he died a minister of the gospel of the Prince of Peace. Prof. Francke gives numerous examples of the stirring revolutionary lyrics of Follen and his associates in the Fatherland, and they make us realize how far the cooling of the crust of the political world has gone on in seventy years. Revolutions are doubtless still impending in western Europe, but that they will be ushered in with song seems daily less probable.

—The article of most general interest in the ninth annual report of the United States Geological Survey, lately issued, is the history of the Charleston earthquake of August 31, 1886, by Capt. C. E. Dutton, with some assistance from Ensign Everett Hayden. About four thousand reports of the effects of this occurrence in different States were received, and, owing to the general use of standard time, it was found possible to make good use of many of these in determining the velocity of the transmission of the earth-wave from the chief centre of disturbance, about twenty miles northwest of Charleston, to various parts of the country. The velocity attained was somewhat over three miles a second, about equal to the theoretical velocity of a wave in a uniform homogeneous elastic medium, like the average of the rocks of the earth's crust. This velocity is much greater than has been found in other earthquakes, but Capt. Dutton believes that it is of sufficient accuracy to outweigh all previous results. Twenty-seven persons were killed and many more died from exposure. More than five thousand buildings were more or less injured and nearly fourteen thousand chimneys were overthrown in Charleston alone; the money loss in that city was estimated at between five and six million dollars. The report is finely illustrated from photographs, mostly taken under the direction of Mr. W. J. McGee of the Survey, who visited the district immediately after the chief disturbance. The craterlets, formed by water gushing up from sandy layers at a little depth, are fully portrayed. There was nothing whatever of volcanic quality in Carolina. In attempting to explain the process and propagation of the earthquake, Capt. Dutton is forced to abandon the geometrical views of Mallet, which came into fashion with his famous report on the Neapolitan earthquake of 1857. The waves at Charleston were too unsymmetrical and complicated to be determined by their effects in cracking walls and overturning chimneys; and as a similar scepticism has come over the students of the numerous earthquakes in Japan, we fear it is necessary to take leave of Mallet's methods, though with regret, for his was too pretty a theory to give up willingly. As the angle of emergence of the waves could not be defined, the depth of the earthquake focus was determined by means of a novel method of discussing the rate of decrease of destructiveness on the surface—chiefly from observations by Mr. Earle Sloan of Charleston, whose contributions in this direction are pronounced of the highest value. The seat of the disturbance was thus estimated to lie at a depth of twelve miles. The rate of progress of the wave already referred to is regarded as the chief scientific result of the monograph.

—Kettler's *Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Geographie* (1890, Ergänzungsheft No. 2) contains an interesting paper of fifty-three pages entitled 'Die Orientfahrt des Ritter A. von Harff; Beiträge zu einer Kritik seiner Reisebeschreibung,' by R. Frhr. von Seydlitz. Recent criticism has played havoc with the reputations of many mediæval travellers for veracity, showing that they often relied upon their imagination for facts, recorded vague rumors or the statements of other writers as the results of their own observation, and did not hesitate to continue their journeys on paper wherever they found it inconvenient to go in person. The Oriental journey of the Ritter Arnold von Harff took place during the last three years of the fifteenth century, and although his account of it was written soon after his return in the autumn of 1499 and dedicated to his sovereign, the Duke of Jülich and Berg-on-the-Rhine, it was first printed at Cologne in 1860 by Dr. E. von Groote, who based his text on a collation of three manuscripts. It may be added that the so-called Düsseldorf manuscript, supposed by the editor to be lost, is at Treves. There are also several other manuscripts in existence: one at Neuhaus, a castle on the Danube, another in the University Library at Bonn, a third in the Court Library at Darmstadt, and a fourth in the University Library at Giessen. These eight manuscripts, and there were doubtless many more, suffice to prove that the work excited no inconsiderable degree of contemporary interest. Its publication under the title 'Die Pilgerfahrt des Ritter A. von Harff' called forth much adverse criticism; the author was accused of copying his descriptions from Marco Polo and other travellers, and, in general, of drawing a bow of such prodigious length as to send his arrows into lands which his eyes had never beheld. One critic asserted that of all the places mentioned by Harff in his explorations of the Nile not one can be shown to exist—a reckless statement which Baron von Seydlitz successfully refutes. It is also a striking coincidence that, at the time when this criticism was made, Speke discovered the source of the Nile near the spot where Harff claims to have found it. Von Seydlitz follows Harff in his itinerary step by step, points out his errors and exaggerations, his love of marvels, and his easy credulity in accepting them, but completely vindicates his character as an honest and would-be truthful man, who, however, was utterly incompetent to discriminate between fact and fiction. He set out as a pilgrim to visit sacred shrines for the saving of his soul, and, with his confirmed mental habit of everywhere looking for wonders, it is the greatest wonder of all that he did not discover more. These rather uninviting investigations, which are pursued with commendable patience, conscientious thoroughness, and remarkable critical acumen, serve at least to relieve Harff from the imputation of being a wilful deceiver, and, by deciphering and identifying several names of places—such, for example, as Edessa for Orissa (p. 38), and Phasagar for Usagara (p. 41)—make a positive and valuable contribution to geographical science. A map, giving the direction and extent of Harff's travels, accompanies the text and is a welcome aid to the reader.

BROWNING'S LIFE AND LETTERS.—I.

Life and Letters of Robert Browning. By Mrs. Sutherland Orr. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THE Life of Robert Browning begins, naturally, in the hands of a writer of so scientific a cast of mind as Mrs. Sutherland Orr shows herself, with the subject of heredity both in temperament and physique. The first point brought out is that the poet was neither Jewish nor Creole by blood, as has been thought in some quarters. There is no trace of either the Hebraic or the negro strain. The family

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is not traced by the biographer, except in a very general way, beyond the grandfather, a clerk in the Bank of England, a handsome, vigorous man of the provincial type, whose literary tastes were divided between the Bible and 'Tom Jones,' both of which he is said to have read annually. He was not a fond parent, and his son, the father of Robert, seems to have owed little gratitude to one who denied him unnecessarily a university career and broke with him in other matters. The latter obtained a good education, especially in the classics, and, on getting on in life, after giving up a lucrative employment on his mother's West Indian estates in disgust at negro slavery, he developed a character of much individuality. He, too, was a bank clerk, but, as Mrs. Orr aptly says, he exhibited as talent what in the poet was genius. He had the habit of sketching and also of grotesque rhyming, and impressed both on his son in childhood; he was a lover of rare books, a wide reader, of the laborious class that makes notes in all volumes read, and he came to have a special knowledge of early Italian, French, and Spanish literature. His son was indebted to him for information and research on the more recondite subjects of his verse. Latterly he lived at Paris, and was remembered by those who met him as a striking old man.

Few anecdotes are told of him, but they are illustrative of character. He is said to have changed his restaurant in London because the waiter insisted on giving him the trouble of saying what he would have to eat. In his last hours he displayed such unusual firmness and cheerfulness that the physician inquired of his daughter if he knew he was dying; and the old man replied: "Death is no enemy in my eyes." "What do you think death is, Robert," he said; "is it a fainting or is it a pang?" His last words were to his son, who was fanning him —"I am so afraid that I fatigue you, dear." Altogether a fine character as we see him here, a lifelong scholar, and otherwise of cultivated tastes, without any touch of sordidness or the narrow spirit which might have been expected from his circumstances, and able and willing to direct his son at the beginning of his intellectual life, to sympathize with him, and to support him afterwards in the face of the pecuniary failure of his works. For this alone, Browning declared to a friend, he "owed more to his father than to any one else in the world."

In his childhood, Browning appears to have been the traditional prodigy of a small circle. When he first went to school, he was so much quicker than his companions that he had to be removed because the other patrons of the school were jealous of the attention given to him. The teacher is reported to have "retorted on the discontented parents that if she could give their children 'Master Browning's intellect,' she would have no difficulty in satisfying them." He was a child of much sensibility, and, owing to his mother's influence, it showed itself in religious feeling. He described himself as "passionately religious" at this early period. A characteristic anecdote to illustrate his sensitiveness relates that on hearing the tale of the lion who was kicked to death by an ass, he took such a hatred of the book that he hid it away in the seat of an old chair so as never to see it again. He was a lover of animals, and kept "owls and monkeys, magpies and hedgehogs, an eagle and even a couple of large snakes, constantly bringing home the more portable creatures in his pockets, and transferring them to his mother for immediate care." This taste he maintained through life, and we read of his bringing snakes to his boy "Pen" at the Baths of Lucca. When he first experienced homesickness, he chose a cistern near the school for his place of burial, and used to pass his hand over a raised face on it, chanting "In memory of unhappy Browning," till the "acute stage of the feeling had passed away." Such incidents serve to show his emotional temperament and his interests. From the first, however, books made a large element in his idea of the world. His father's house was packed with them, and among the thousands of volumes were those on which youthful genius has often been nourished—'Robinson Crusoe,' 'Milton,' and the rest. He made Quarles's 'Emblems' an early favorite. At the age of twelve he had written his first manuscript volume of poems, called 'Incondita,' strongly Byronic. He wished to publish, and his father and mother encouraged the project; but no publisher was found. It served only by an accident to introduce the boy to the Unitarian minister, W. J. Fox, from whose heirs the poet long afterwards received a copy, and then destroyed it. Mr. Fox and the Misses Flower, one of whom wrote 'Nearer, my God, to Thee,' were his first literary acquaintances, and the connection was long maintained. He showed also in boyhood a taste for acting, and joined in juvenile theatricals.

Browning's individual life, however, really began with his acquaintance with Shelley's poems, and the story has often been told how he got at Ollier's the invaluable first editions, with Keats's works thrown in at the bookseller's suggestion, as being likely to please one who enjoyed Shelley. The fervor of Shelley would naturally stir a youthful poet, and Browning seems always to have valued Shelley rather for his spirit and the inspiration the verse breathes out than for the works alone. There was also at first, we think, a direct intellectual and moral appeal. It is said that the poems which attracted Browning were "Queen Mab" and the others of that strain. He became under this influence a professed atheist and a vegetarian, and for two years he confined himself to a vegetable diet. The real truth of the matter was that Browning was bred somewhat narrowly in the orthodox faith; and Mrs. Orr describes this youthful scepticism rightly as "a passing state of moral or imaginative rebellion," not of rational doubt. In connection with this we find the youthful qualities naturally to be expected. Browning was a man of impatient temper, self-asserting, and not without a good conceit of himself; as a boy, he showed these traits in a crude and apparently a disagreeable form. Mrs. Orr's account of it is as follows:

"It was natural that during this time of growth he should have been not only more restless, but less amiable than at any other. The always impatient temper assumed a quality of aggressiveness. He behaved as a youth will who knows himself to be clever and believes that he is not appreciated, because the crude or paradoxical forms which his cleverness assumes do not recommend it to his elders' minds. He set the judgment of those about him at defiance, and gratuitously proclaimed himself everything that he was and some things that he was not. All this subdued itself as time advanced and the coming man in him threw off the wayward child. It was all so natural that it might well be forgotten. But it distressed his mother, the one being in the world whom he entirely loved; and deserves remembering in the tender sorrow with which he himself remembered it. He was always ready to say that he had been worth little in his young days."

This is a sufficient characterization of his youth. He was affectionate towards his mother, but otherwise his emotions were torpid, and long remained so. He had been through the usual studies, including all physical exercises usual to a gentleman's education, but apparently with an entire neglect of mathematics and logic. In this omission Mrs. Orr finds, perhaps justly, the secret of his confused style and imperfect expression. He also developed the taste for music and wrote it for songs.

In the early, though anonymous, publication of 'Pauline' there is another sign of the forward and self-confident nature of the young man. By it he renewed his acquaintance with Mr. W. J. Fox, whose praise it won in a review, but it made no impression upon the public, though we know now that it attracted Mill's attention, and twenty years after so pleased Rossetti that, only suspecting its authorship, he copied it out so as to possess it. A journey to Russia as secretary to the Russian Consul-General in 1833–34 followed, and suggested diplomacy as a career, but application for employment in it failed. 'Paracelsus' was then published, and the author began to move in literary circles, meeting Serjeant Talfourd, Horne, Leigh Hunt, Barry Cornwall, Milnes, and among the rest of greater note Wordsworth, Dickens, and Landor. The only productive friendship was that with Macready, which resulted in the composition of the dramas. The account of the unfortunate break in the cordial relations of the poet and the actor is given by Browning himself. The incident need not be dwelt upon. A not unpardonable lack of frankness on Macready's part, and an aggressive and irritating demeanor on Browning's side, brought about one of those mutual misunderstandings which are the source of many such separations.

Together with the plays, the production of 'Sordello' and 'Bells and Pomegranates' contributed to the reputation of Browning within a certain circle, and in his personal life two journeys to Italy helped to fertilize and develop his poetical faculty. During his first London period he mingled much with the literary set, and was praised by his private friends, but his fame did not show signs of growing, and he afterwards based on this fact an opinion that literary acquaintance was not of so much value in securing recognition as it is thought to be. In person at this time he is described as "slim, dark, and handsome," and, says the same authority, the daughter of Mr. Fox, "just a trifle of a dandy, addicted to lemon-colored kid gloves and such things, . . . full of ambition, eager for success, eager for fame." Mrs. Orr does not think he was ever "foppish," but sustains the view that he was full of confidence, excitable in his moods, with a touch of flippancy and conceit, and also of warm gratitude for kindness and of enthusiastic admiration of others' talents. She remarks upon the lack of emotional life in this period of his career, that is, the life of the affections. The immaturity of his mind and the tentative nature of his art are well shown by an extract from the correspondence of 1838 or 1839: "I am going to begin the finishing 'Sordello,' and to begin thinking a Tragedy (an Historical one, so I shall want heaps of criticisms on 'Strafford'), and I want to have another tragedy in prospect; I write best so provided. . . . I want a subject of the most wild and passionate love to contrast with the one I mean to have ready in a short time. I have many half-conceptions, floating fancies: give me your notion of a thorough self-devotement, self-forgetting: should it be a woman who loves thus or a man?" His experience of love came five years after this was written.

The narrative of the engagement and marriage of the poet to Miss Barrett, and of their

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life together, is given with much fulness, and is, we think, the most interesting portion of these volumes. He was introduced to her by her cousin, Mr. Kenyon. They became at once mutually attached, and he proposed marriage "under a sudden and overmastering impulse." Miss Barrett had long been an invalid, and was supposed to be incurable. The doctor advised that she be sent south for the winter, but her father did not assent to the plan, evidently thinking it would prove useless. Miss Barrett then determined to accept Mr. Browning's offer and elope. She first drove to Regent's Park, and tried to step on the ground, and did so probably only for a moment. When she "felt earth under her feet and air about her," she said, "the sensation was almost bewilderingly strange." They were married September 12, 1846, at St. Pancras Church, and Mr. Browning, whenever he came back to London afterwards, used to go and kiss the paving-stones before the church in memory of the event. A week later Mrs. Browning left her father's house secretly, by the connivance of her sisters and maid, and took Flush, her dog. "O Flush," she said, "if you make a sound, I am lost." Mr. Browning was in waiting, and they departed for the Continent. The marriage had been entirely secret, and Mr. Barrett and his sons were much enraged. He never forgave his daughter, never saw her, and would not see her child when she offered to send him. He said afterwards to Mr. Kenyon: "I have no objection to the young man, but my daughter should have been thinking of another world."

Mrs. Orr does not underestimate the grave risks that were taken by the Brownings. His own family were naturally most concerned lest the experiment should prove fatal to Mrs. Browning and he should be blamed. She was, though he did not know it until later in life, six years his senior, and the prospect was at best that of the union of a hopeless invalid with a husband of no experience or understanding of illness. All turned out fortunately; she gained in health, and they were happy together. Mrs. Orr says, however, that to suppose that this union "maintained itself as if by magic, without effort of self-sacrifice on his part and of resignation on hers, would be as unjust to the noble qualities of both as it would be false to assert that its compensating happiness had ever failed them." He was wholly devoted to her welfare, and she was proud of him and very happy. Her letters abound with expressions of her belief in his perfections: "Temper, spirits, manners—there is not a flaw anywhere"; and again, in connection with an error of judgment, which resulted in their having to hire two houses, she writes: "Any other man, a little lower than the angels, would have stamped and sworn a little for the mere relief of the thing—but as to *his* being angry with *me* for any cause except not eating enough dinner, the said sun would turn the wrong way first." The household picture that follows this passage is fairly illustrative. Mrs. Browning was able then to take only a twenty minutes' walk up and down in the piazza. "Miss Boyle," she says, "ever and anon comes at night, at nine o'clock, to catch us at hot chestnuts and mulled wine, and warm her feet at our fire—and a kinder, more cordial little creature, full of talent and accomplishment, never had the world's polish on it. Very amusing she is, too, and original; and a good deal of laughing she and Robert make between them, and this is nearly all we see of the Face Divine—I can't make Robert go out a single evening." The only difference that ever rose between them was about spiritualism, in which Mrs. Browning believed; and she annoyed her husband by refusing to credit his own expressed disbelief, and insisting that they could not disagree. The circumstances connected with spiritualistic manifestations were more distasteful to him, probably, and there must have been something disquieting in the notion of his wife's entertaining impostures which cannot safely be thought harmless.

THREE TEXT-BOOKS OF PHYSIOLOGY.

A Text-Book of Physiology. By Michael Foster, Professor of Physiology in the University of Cambridge. 5th ed. Parts I., II., and III. Macmillan & Co. 1888–1890.

A Text-Book of Physiology. By John Gray M'Kendrick, Professor of the Institutes of Medicine in the University of Glasgow. Including Histology, by Philipp Stöhr, Professor of Anatomy in the University of Zürich. Vol. II. Special Physiology. Macmillan.

A Text-Book of Animal Physiology. By Wesley Mills, Professor of Physiology in McGill University and the Veterinary College, Montreal. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

THE fifth edition of Foster's 'Physiology,' as stated in the preface, is of the same general character and arrangement as that of previous editions. That is, the general and special problems of physiology are brought forward and briefly discussed in an introduction, and then taken up in detail, with frequent summaries which bring each subject to a focus so that its main facts, conclusions, and hypotheses may all be seen at a glance and in their true relation. While it is true that this edition is in general similar to the older ones, it seems like a new book as compared with the first, second, or third. In them but few figures were given, and these were mostly of physiological apparatus and tracings or curves; in the present edition, while these are retained, and many more of the same kind added, there are many anatomical and histological figures, making 133 in the three parts already published, against 72 in the entire work as published in the third edition. The anatomical figures are very welcome, as it is doubtless easier for any one to gain some concrete notion of a function if the functioning organ and its structural details are exhibited.

The author is especially gifted in bringing out with great force and clearness just the problems to be solved and the result of the efforts already made to solve them. For example:

"In the first place, there are what may be called general problems, such as, How the food after its preparation and elaboration into blood is built up into the living substance of the several tissues? How the living substance breaks down into the dead waste? How the building up and breaking down differ in the different tissues in such a way that energy is set free in different modes, the muscular tissue contracting, the nervous tissue thrilling with a nervous impulse, the secreting tissue doing chemical work, and the like? To these general questions the answers which we can at present give can hardly be called answers at all."

On almost every page of the book are changes from the earlier issues. Indeed, the various editions of this work form a very complete and safe guide to the progress in physiology, and indicate the great fitness of the author for the task of presenting to students a kind of summary of the state and progress of knowledge in this department. He seems to have no pet theories to carry through in spite of changing views and increased knowledge. In no department of anatomy and physiology has the activity of original investigators and real progress been greater than in that of the central nervous system, the subject of the third part of this treatise; certainly no part shows such marked changes in the different editions, especially in this last one. Here, too, have been felt more keenly than in other parts the fetters of the old, stilted and ambiguous anthropomorphic anatomical terminology. So largely must the anatomy, embryology, and physiology of the lower animals be drawn on in explanation and illustration of the fundamental facts and principles of structure and function, that even the author, who in a previous publication ('Practical Physiology') described the lower animals as if in the erect attitude of man, has felt constrained to adopt what has been so earnestly advocated on this side of the Atlantic, viz., a terminology determined by inherent structural relations at all periods and without regard to the various attitudes with respect to the earth assumed by the different animals in adult life. It must be said, moreover, that this terminological change has had no inconsiderable share in making the morphological account of the central nervous system one of the very best and most intelligible in any language. As the changes are greatest in this part, the lack of the footnote references of the earlier editions is more keenly felt than in the other parts of the work.

The discussion of the physiology of the central nervous system occupies considerably less than half of the 288 pages of the third part. As it is without doubt the highest stage of physiology, so is the interest attaching to it the most absorbing. It is here that the fitness of the author is especially apparent. Nothing could be more lucid than his accounts of the experiments and the conclusions to be drawn from them, and, further, nothing could be of more real assistance to the student or reader than the repeated cautions against ascribing too much significance to isolated phenomena. Yet so constant and clear are the results of experiment that the author feels justified in saying:

"In short, the more we study the phenomena exhibited by animals possessing a part only of their brain, the closer we are pushed to the conclusion that no sharp line can be drawn between volition and the lack of volition, or between the possession and absence of intelligence. Between the muscle-nerve preparation at the one limit, and our conscious willing selves at the other, there is a continuous gradation without a break; we cannot fix on any linear barrier in the brain or in the general nervous system, and say, 'Beyond this there is volition and intelligence, but up to this there is none.'"

Prof. Foster is especially careful throughout not to assume too readily that the results of experiments on the frog, bird, or one of the lower mammals can be applied directly to a man or a monkey; and repeatedly insists that great caution must be exercised in interpreting the results of experiments. The phenomena immediately following an operation may wholly disappear as the animal recovers from the shock; and, when recovery is complete, although there is no regeneration of the part removed, the animal may so far recover its normal mode of action that it would be difficult or impossible in many cases to determine exactly or even approximately what part had been removed. This holds with even so highly organized a creature as the dog.

In the second volume of Dr. M'Kendrick's work is given the special physiology or physiology proper, except that of muscular tissue, which is discussed in the first volume. In ge-

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neral character and style it is a distinct improvement on the earlier volume, already noticed by us. It has far less matter that seems subsidiary, and goes directly to the point in most subjects. The faults of the general plan are brought out very clearly, inasmuch as structural details concerning the blood, the nervous system, etc., given in the first volume, are repeated in this in connection with the various organs and systems. But as a rule the discussion of structure is more satisfactory in the present volume, and perhaps, on the theory of "line upon line," it is an advantage frequently to review. The author's treatment is direct and forcible, proceeding from strong convictions, and in most cases the conclusions arrived at show a familiarity with the best as well as the latest work. It is gratifying to see that the work of American physiologists is recognized, and, in general, that opposing views are fairly presented. In matters of detail there is evidence of too great haste or a trusting to the statements of older authorities. For example, the statement is repeated from the first volume concerning the elliptical form of the red-blood corpuscles in birds, reptiles, and fishes, no exception being made for the circular, bi-concave red corpuscles of the lamprey. It is also stated that "no corpuscle similar to the colored corpuscle is found in the blood of invertebrates," while a work frequently cited by the author gives examples of several invertebrates in which there are special blood corpuscles containing hæmoglobin, the red coloring matter of the corpuscles of vertebrates. General statements are sometimes made where particular ones would be preferable, as, in discussing lymph hearts, it is stated that the "amphibians possess four." This is true of the frog, but in some members of the group as many as twelve are present. And on p. 248 it is said that in passing from large arteries to their branches the combined area of the branches always exceeds the trunk vessel, except with the abdominal aorta, whose area is greater than that of the two iliacs into which it divides, while on p. 257 it is stated without exception that "the sum of the diameters of the branches of an artery are always greater than the diameter of the artery from which they sprung."

The third treatise under consideration is smaller than either of the others, but covers a much wider field. As a rule the presentation is clear, accurate, and emphatic; and in common with the first, and a great many other books, the excellent plan is followed of bringing the salient points of a chapter together in a comprehensive summary at the end. The general tone and spirit, and the reason for the title 'Animal Physiology,' may be understood from the preface:

"I think any one who will examine the methods and reasoning of the physiology of the day will not fail, on close scrutiny, to recognize a tendency to speak of certain conclusions, for various organs [and functions] as though they applied to these organs in whatever group of animals found, or, at all events, for man, no matter what the species of the animal that had been experimented upon. For some years I have, in publications of my own original researches, strongly protested against such methods as illogical. I am wholly at a loss to understand how a work, built upon the most fragmentary and heterogeneous evidence, derived from experiments on a few groups of animals, or a certain amount of human clinical or pathological evidence, can be fittingly termed a treatise on 'human physiology.'"

It is clearly out of the question at the present day for an author to give in a book of 700 octavo pages anything like an adequate account of general biology, comparative embryology, animal physiology, and the application of evolution to them, which Prof. Mills claims to be original with himself. There inevitably results a greater or less amount of superficiality and broader generalizing than the actual state of knowledge warrants. Although this book is in many respects excellent, and the majority of its statements accurate, contradictions, bad generalization, and half truths are too numerous. Indeed, all the sins inveighed against in the preface and in other parts of the book are found too frequently in its own pages.

THE SOURCES OF AMERICAN LIBERTY.

Droits et Libertés aux État-Unis. Leurs Origines et leurs Progrès. Par Adolphe de Chambrun. Paris. 1891.

This book is the first attempt, we believe, to explain to Frenchmen the origin of the rights enjoyed by American citizens. The British Constitution has been more than once expounded to the French public by French observers, but, so far as we know, there is no other book which explains to Frenchmen not only what American legal institutions are, but how Americans came by them. Tocqueville's work is rather an explanation of the effect of democracy on the manners and on the working of the Governmental machinery than a history of legal ideas. He was profoundly impressed by the strides democracy was making in his own day in all the countries of the Western world, and greatly interested in the probable effect on society and politics of the principle of equality which, after all, supplies democracy with its motive force, and to a considerable extent with its morality. He came to America to study it in the belief that it was here that he could see its working with least disturbance from tradition or inheritance. The consequence is that 'Democracy in America,' great as are its merits, and wide as its fame has been, has always been considered defective on the historical side, and has done but little to make clear to Frenchmen the exact nature and value of the indebtedness of the people of the United States to the great foundations of English jurisprudence. That Americans enjoy English freedom in the English sense, everybody knows, but we imagine very few Frenchmen, very few even of the readers of Tocqueville, are familiar with the exact means and appliances by which this freedom is preserved from generation to generation, both against the encroachments of political power and the storms of popular passion. It is these means and appliances of which M. de Chambrun has undertaken to give the history and describe the working.

The task is one for which hardly any Frenchman can qualify himself, even by long residence in either England or the United States. There is nothing in Anglo-Saxon manners and customs which the Frenchman of to-day finds harder to understand than our legal procedure, with its oddities of terminology and its external absurdity, its steady presumptions against the Government, and its extremely circuitous methods of attaining politico-legal ends. Frenchmen and other Continental Europeans, therefore, often live half their lives in the countries under the common law with nothing but the vaguest notion of its working or of the origin of its fundamental assumptions; and nothing is more common than to find them ascribing whatever in it is hard to comprehend to the eccentricity of the Anglo-Saxon character.

M. de Chambrun enters on his task with the very rare combination of qualifications—long residence in the country and long practice of American law for French clients. After his minute study of Anglo-Saxon institutions, here is what he says as to the resemblance between American and English politico-legal institutions (p. 349):

"Aside from the question of religious liberty, which, as we shall see presently, cannot be understood in the same sense in the two countries, I believe the English and Americans have maintained almost the same principles, and that after one hundred years of separation the individual rights are in the case of each about equal. I think, too, that, except in the matter of applying the Constitution to the law, the English judge exercises power as effective for the protection of the liberty of the English subject as the American judge for the protection of the American citizen. On these capital points the two peoples are in perfect accord. They walk by the same light and are guided by the same principles."

When M. de Chambrun comes to compare the United States and France from the same point of view he has a very different story to tell (p. 357):

"On many occasions," he says, "it has fallen to my lot to respond to the toast, 'France: The Ancient Ally of the United States.' As I did not wish to repeat the old phrases about General Lafayette, I looked about carefully, but vainly, I confess, for a point of *rapprochement*, or at least a point of contact, between the social and political institutions of the two countries. I was not able to discover anything of the kind. Our Civil Code . . . is just the opposite of the Common Law. At the same time, our civil institutions everywhere strike down free association. In France it seems as if this were the enemy that must be strangled. In the United States, on the other hand, it is the protégé of the law. Higher still in the order of institutions appear the rights of man. In France one can hardly find traces of these rights, so completely are they crushed out between the articles of the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Penal Code. In the United States they constitute sacred rights reserved to the citizens."

The chapters on criminal procedure, in which the precautions taken in England and America for the protection of the accused against oppression in any form are fully expounded and illustrated for the benefit of Frenchmen, are perhaps the most interesting and instructive in the book. The various differences between the position of the prisoner at the bar in France and in England or America are described by M. de Chambrun with much clearness, and he makes no concealment of his preference for the English mode of trial. The teasing interrogation of the French prisoner by the judge by which all French trials are opened, and which is often cruel enough to be put in the same category with the "question préalable" of the old régime, he condemns emphatically. The judge in America, he points out, takes no part in the prosecution. He simply sits as arbitrator between the State and the defence, who fight out their quarrel before him on a perfectly equal footing. The counsel for the Government, too, instead of sitting up on a raised dais, as a superior personage, has to contend on the floor with the counsel for the defence, exactly as in a civil suit. All this would seem shocking in French eyes, as would also the impregnable silence in which the prisoner is allowed to take refuge until the State has produced its proofs.

M. de Chambrun has, we think, hardly made as clear as he might have done the close connection which this position of the State in criminal prosecutions in America has not only with the legal traditions touching individual liberty, but with the whole attitude of the American and English community towards the Government. The habit of electing executive and legislative officers, which has always existed in some degree in Anglo-Saxon countries, has kept the people constantly in mind

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of the strictly fiduciary character of the administration, and prevented its ever taking on the air of a final source of authority. The same causes which in France release a Government agent from responsibility to individuals for wrongful acts before ordinary tribunals, give the French prosecuting officer a semi-judicial character, and put the prisoner into the hands of the judge for preliminary mental torture. The dignity of the State has to be maintained at any cost in every department of administration. None of its representatives must ever be allowed to place himself on an equality before the law with any individual. In all countries which have emerged from despotism the prestige of the Government seems of enormous importance, as compared to individual rights and liberties, and this tradition shows itself nowhere so strongly as in courts of justice. To the sanctity of this tradition the individual finds himself sacrificed at every turn. The infallibility of the State has to be cared for as tenderly as discipline in the army, as part of the framework of society.

But we do not mention this as an impeachment of M. de Chambrun's accuracy. The precision and judgment with which he steers his way through the maze of English and American legal authorities are very remarkable, and, as we have said, would hardly have been possible for a Frenchman who had not practised as well as studied Anglo-American law.

THE KNOWN IN DANTE'S LIFE.

La Divina Commedia di Dante Alighieri, da G. A. Scartazzini. Volume quarto. Prolegomeni della Divina Commedia. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1890.

In 1875, in the preface to the second volume of his edition of the 'Divina Commedia,' Dr. Scartazzini announced that he should complete his elaborate commentary by a fourth volume, containing such historical and critical matter as would sum up and complete the results of his long and painstaking labors as annotator. It would, he hoped, be ready in 1878. The patient investigation of many students during the fifteen years which have passed since the present volume was thus announced has changed in many respects our ideas about Dante. The romantic history of Dante's life, the *bel romanzo*, as Scartazzini calls it, with its embassies to various powers, with its frequent journeys to other countries, its years of university training at the centres of learning, with its important part in the political, philosophical, and literary life of the time — all this has been put to the test of the severest critical study. Instead of knowing almost as much about Dante as about Dryden or Gray, we have learned that we really know very little of his outward life—very few facts that could show us how he looked, what he did, what he said, or what were the incidents, important or trivial, which made up his relations with the life of his time. The work of Dante scholars, a work now more organized than ever before, has aimed in the last few years at reducing this fine romance of Dante's supposed life to a sound basis of historical fact, in order that with these facts—even if, indeed, they be few—thoroughly in mind, we may go on, without false conceptions at the outset, to understand that which is of much more importance—Dante's inner life, his life as shown in his works.

To the reader of the 'Divine Comedy,' then, who is anxious to have no misconception of the facts of Dante's life, Scartazzini's 'Prolegomeni' has a peculiar interest, as the work of a man who for a quarter of a century has studied with almost superstitious reverence every scrap of writing which concerns Dante's life and works, and to whose accuracy and enormous capacity for labor we owe the best modern commentary on the 'Divina Commedia.' The second division of the work in hand need not detain us here. It treats cursorily of the language and literature of the *trecento*, and then, at greater length and one by one, discusses various writings of Dante, their main characteristics, and the dates at which they were written, adding a bibliography of the chief books bearing on them. In short, this second part is in general equivalent to the corresponding part of the author's small hand-book, published by Hoepli in 1883 and translated by Mr. Davidson in 1887. The first part of the 'Prolegomeni,' however, calls for more careful attention: it treats definitely of the life of Dante. What, then, has Scartazzini to say to us after his twenty-five years of study, and how do the results which he has reached compare with those of other workers in the same field?

According to Scartazzini the ascertained historical facts in the life of Dante Alighieri about which there is no doubt are few in number. The son of Alighiero and his second wife, a certain Bella, he was born in Florence, in May or June, 1265, of a Guelph family, whether noble or of the people we cannot tell. Dante had a brother and a sister, but we know nothing more of them, or indeed of their parents, than that they existed. As to the events of Dante's early life we are scarcely wiser. He was at the Battle of Campaldino, June 11, 1289, if we may believe the testimony of Bruni or trust to Dante's hint in the "Purgatorio" (v. 91), and at the siege of Caprona later in the same year. At some time before his exile—certainly not after 1298—he was married to Gemma Donati, by whom he had at least four children. Of her character we know nothing: whether she was a good wife or he a good husband we have—long disputes among critics to the contrary—no means of ascertaining. It is not even certain whether, after January, 1302, he ever saw her again.

Dante held no political office before 1295 or 1296. In 1296, in obedience to the Ordinances of Justice, whereby no one could hold office unless enrolled in one of the Seven Arts, he entered his name among the doctors and apothecaries. On December 10, 1296, and March 14, 1297, he is recorded as speaking in the Councils of the One Hundred. In 1299, he was ambassador to San Gemignano on the part of the republic of Florence.* Of the other thirteen embassies of Dante reported by Filelfo we have no proof whatever. From June 15 to August 15, 1300, he held the office of Prior, an honor by no means extraordinary. The quarrel which led to the banishment of the leaders of both the Blacks and the Whites occurred in December, four months after Dante had left office. It is not true, then, that he could have had a part in the sentence of banishment which caused the death of his chief friend, Guido Cavalcanti.† In April, 1301, almost a year after he had finished his term of service as Prior, Dante appears again in the public records, this time as supervisor of certain improvements which were made in the Via di San Procolo. In the same year he voted, April 14, in the Consiglio delle Capitudini, and on June 19 and September 13 we find him recorded as taking part (*consuluit*) in the proceedings of the Council of the Hundred. These few bare facts are really all that we know of Dante's political services to the republic of Florence.

Shortly after Charles of Valois entered Florence, and the Guelphs came into power again, the new Podestà, Cante de' Gabrielli, in a decree of January 27, 1302, declared Dante guilty of barratry and other crimes, and condemned him to a fine of five hundred florins, banishment for two years, and the entire loss of civic rights. Forty days afterwards, March 10, a further decree declared that Dante (and fourteen others) had not obeyed the decree of January 10, and condemned him to death by burning if he ever came into the power of the State. The reasons for Dante's exile were probably these. He had opposed the coming of Charles of Valois and the intervention of the Pope in the affairs of Florence. He was an enemy of the party of the Blacks, *fidelium devotorum sancte Romane Ecclesie.* He had, moreover, for several years repeatedly shown himself unfriendly to the Guelph policy. In 1296, 1297, and again in 1301, he had perhaps opposed—in vain—a bill granting money to aid Charles II. of Naples in subduing the rebellious Sicilians. In 1301 he had certainly voted *nihil fiat* on a request from Boniface for a hundred soldiers. No wonder that the Blacks discovered that the large amount of money which must necessarily have passed through his hands as Supervisor of Roads, paved an easy way to a charge of theft.

It is in the highest degree improbable, Scartazzini thinks, that Dante was the Ambassador of the Whites at Rome in the autumn of 1301. Villani, who would have been certain to know of such an event, does not mention it, and his statements seem even to preclude it. The Pope was not at Rome at that time, but at Anagni, and Dante, of all men, one would suppose, was the one least likely to be sent to him. Dante probably joined the band of exiles, whose numbers were rapidly increasing. He was at least with them, as his signature shows, at San Godenza, at the foot of the Apennines, not far from Florence, June 8, 1302, when they entered into a certain agreement of indemnity with the Ubaldini. Some time later, displeased with his company, he left the allies. In March, 1304, or at some time previous, he was in Verona at the court of Bartolommeo della Scala. August 27, 1306, he was living in Padua, as his signature to a notary's deed shows. October 6 of the same year we find him in Sarzana, in Lunigiana, as procurator of Franceschino Malaspina. Either before or after this he is said on good authority to have studied in Bologna and in Paris. He may, indeed, have been in Paris when he heard of Henry the Seventh's expedition into Italy. Late in 1310 or early in 1311, he sent forth, from what place we do not know, his celebrated letter to the Princes and Peoples of Italy. March 31, 1311, from somewhere in Tuscany near the source of the Arno, he sent to the Florentines his tremendous letter of invective, the only result of which was a new sentence of condemnation against him. April 16, 1311, he was at the same place, and writing a letter of humble remonstrance and earnest advice to the Emperor, whom, as he hints, he had met shortly before.

From 1311 on, Dante's movements are even more indefinite. It is said that in March, 1314, he was in Venice, ambassador of Guido No-

*This Scartazzini denies, declaring that the document which is supposed to prove the embassy is not now to be found and probably never existed. It has, however, recently been discovered and is published in the *Rivista Critica*, ii., 29 (Jan., 1885.)

†Here Scartazzini's zeal for clearing away mere rumor from the record of Dante's life has led him astray. Guido Cavalcanti, he says (founding his statement on an error of Villani's), was banished in December, 1300, not in June. But Cavalcanti died in August, 1300, as Del Lungo has proved by the record in the *Obituario di S. Reparata*. See Del Lungo, 'Dino Compagni,' vol. ii., pp. 98, 110, and 114.

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vello da Polenta of Ravenna to congratulate the new Doge. But the letter, written in the vernacular to his master, which alone gives us this information, was first known to exist only as late as 1547, and is at best of doubtful authenticity; for, in 1314, there was no new Doge at Venice, and Guido was not then Lord of Ravenna. Our only knowledge about Dante's movements during this period is that in 1315 or 1316 he wrote a letter to the Italian cardinals, and that we have an indignant letter, perhaps authentic, addressed by him in 1316 or 1317 to a relative at Florence in reply to a proposal that he should make submission and return to that city. About 1315 he was certainly in Lucca. He may, too, have passed some time at the court of Can Grande at Verona. At any rate, not earlier than 1316 he came, at the invitation of Guido da Polenta, to Ravenna, where, with at least two of his children, he spent the remaining years before his death on September 14 1321.

To such a barren narrative does Scartazzini's close criticism narrow down the *bel romanzo*. His method, the reader will observe, is to doubt at every point, to admit nothing as a fact in Dante's life of which there is not tangible proof. In the application of this method, in which he follows the brilliant Prof. Bartoli, Scartazzini, as we have seen, sometimes goes too far. Doubting and testing at every point, he sometimes doubts too subtly, and argues himself into finding an obstacle to belief when none really exists.

Scartazzini's critical examination of the facts of Dante's life is undoubtedly valuable. He clears away error and unconscious prejudice of mind; he stimulates research and rigorous examination; in a few pages, without wandering into unnecessary excursions—the besetting sin of most books of this kind—he indicates, usually with a statement of his own solution, all the problems which the student of the historical facts of Dante's life must at one time or another consider. On the other hand, this volume of 'Prolegomeni' is a disappointing one. Scartazzini is at his best as a compiler. As an acute and learned compiler he has produced the best commentary on the 'Divine Comedy.' In the part of the 'Prolegomeni' which we have taken up, he has shown his best characteristics—a skilful compiler's acuteness and learning, with the strict honesty of the trained investigator. As a critic of life and of literature, however, Scartazzini is distinctly inferior. When he comes to Dante's real life, his inner life, and to the consideration and explanation of Dante's works, one must reluctantly admit that he is dull, unsympathetic, and unsatisfactory.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. What's Bred in the Bone. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.
Andersen, Hans C. The Improvisatore. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Burton, C. V. An Introduction to Dynamics. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Carus, P. Fundamental Problems. Chicago: The *Open Court* Pub. Co. $1.50.
Castle, E. Consequences. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Cotterill, J. H. Lessons in Applied Mechanics. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Cusack, M. E. What Rome Teaches. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Davis, Floyd. An Elementary Handbook on Potable Water. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.
Dawson, H. B. Records of the City of New Amsterdam, in the Netherland. Vol. I. New York: Mitchell's.
Falconer, L. Mademoiselle Ixe. Chicago: Chas. H. Sergel & Co.
Florine, G. W. Dillingham.
Frazer, P. Tables for the Determination of Minerals by Physical Properties. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
French, C. W. Abraham Lincoln. Funk & Wagnalls.
Handbook of the American Republics. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of the American Republics.
Hardy, T. A Group of Noble Dames. Harper & Bros.
Hitchcock, T. Unhappy Loves of Men of Genius. Harper & Bros.
Holmes, Mary. Cameron Pride. G. W. Dillingham.
Janvier, T. A. Color Studies. Charles Scribner's Sons 50 cents.
Jewett, Dr. C. Manual of Childbed Nursing. E. R. Pelton.
Lewes, G. H. Principles of Success in Literature. Boston: Ailyn & Bacon. 50 cents.
Loney, S. L. The Elements of Statics and Dynamics. Part II. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Long, F. C. The Lady of the Lens. Chicago: L. E. Crandall & Co.
Lorne, Marquis of. From Shadow to Sunlight. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Markham, Capt. A. H. Life of Sir John Franklin and the Northwest Passage. London: George Philip & Son.
McLeod, Grace D. Stories of the Land of Evangeline. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Müller, F. M. The Science of Language. New ed. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Osborne, G. A. An Elementary Treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $2.
Page, T. N. On Newfound River. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Pierce, Squier L. Di. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Praed, Mrs. Campbell. The Soul of Countess Adrian. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Prime, W. C. I Go A-fishing. New ed. Harper & Bros.
Ridgeway, A. Diana Fontaine. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Roberty, E. de. La Philosophie du Siècle. Paris: Germer Baillière & Cie.
Sloane, T. O'Connor. The Arithmetic of Electricity. Norman W. Henley & Co. $1.
Smythe, A. E. S. Poems, Grave and Gay. Toronto: Imrie & Graham.
Swift, M. I. Problems of the New Life. Ashtabula, O.: M. I. Swift.
Tanera, Capt. K. Episodes from For King and Fatherland. 1870. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
The Preparation of Advertisements. George P. Rowell & Co.
The Post-Restoration Period of the Church in the British Isles. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
The Psalms. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Thomas, Annie. The Roll of Honor. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Wolff, H. W. The Watering Places of the Vosges. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Wordsworth, W. Poems, Chosen and Edited by Matthew Arnold. Harper & Bros.

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